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ABSTRACT

The collection of papers on the teaching of English as a second language includes: "Teaching English in Japan"; "Reading and Evaluating Quantitative Research"; "Transformational Generative Grammar and Language Teaching"; "Process and Social Aspects of Writing: Theory and Classroom Application"; "Contrastive Analysis Between English Diphthongs...and Similar Vowel Combinations in Japanese"; "Difficulty in English Pronunciation for Japanese People"; "Difficulties Japanese Have in Reading English"; "Japanese College Students' English Reading Ability"; "A Study of Trends of College English Reading Textbooks in Japan: An Analysis of College English Reading Textbooks for 1985"; "Independent Reading in English--Use of Graded Readers in the Library English as a Second Language Corner"; "Getting Students To Read Actively"; "Teaching English Through Newspapers"; "Teaching Culture in Foreign Language Instruction in the United States"; "Teaching American Culture: Content, Methods, and Techniques"; "Development of Thought About Teaching Culture in Japan in the 1960s and Early 1970s"; "Developing Reading Materials for Teaching American Culture in English Courses"; "Administration of Language Laboratories in Colleges"; "The History of Language Laboratories--Origin and Establishment"; "Motivating Students To Learn English by Combining Slide Presentations with Reading and Listening"; "Using Authentic Video Materials in the Language Classroom"; "Introduction to CAI English Classes"; "Developing English CBI Programs at Doshisha University"; "Effects of English CBI at Doshisha University"; "Individualizing English Instruction Using Computers"; "Students' Evaluation of CAI English Classes"; and "Organizing a CAI Contest." (MSE)

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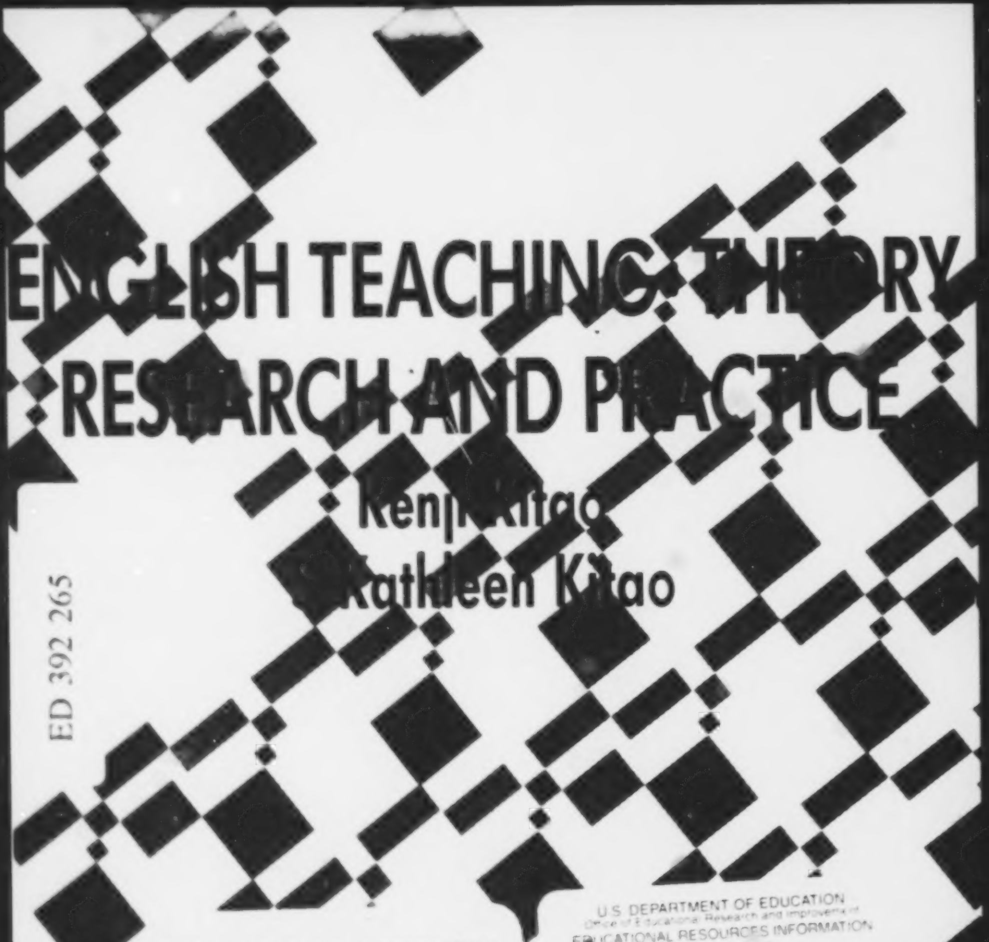

# ENGLISH TEACHING: THEORY RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

Kenji Kitao

S. Kathleen Kitao

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# ENGLISH TEACHING: THEORY, RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

# ENGLISH TEACHING: THEORY, RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

Kenji Kitao

S. Kathleen Kitao

EICHOSHA CO., LTD.
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# PREFACE

This book brings together papers that we have written related to language teaching over the past twenty-five years. Most of them were written during the past ten years. They represent the development of our interests in the language teaching field.

This collection of papers is divided into six sections. The first section is "Background." The paper "Teaching English in Japan" describes the situation in English education in Japan, including reasons people study English, the history of English teaching in Japan, and English teaching in various settings.

The second section is "Theory, Research and Practice." In the first paper, "Reading and Evaluating Quantitative Research," the basic principles of quantitative research are explained. The purpose of this paper is to help language teachers understand research design so that they can evaluate the validity of the research that they read. In "Transformational Generative Grammar and Language Teaching," transformational generative grammar is contrasted with structural linguistics, and suggestions are made for integrating the principles of transformational generative grammar into language teaching methodology. In "Process and Social Aspects of Writing: Theory and Classroom Application," written with Namie Saeki, process and product approaches to composition are contrasted, and secret friend journals, an activity that makes use of the process aspects of writing, is introduced. In "Difficulty in English Pronunciation for Japanese People," pronunication problems are studied.

The third section is "Teaching Reading." In "Contrastive Analysis Between English Dipthongs [aı], [aʊ], and [ɔı] and Similar Vowel Combinations in Japanese" and "Difficulties Japanese Have in Reading English," problems encountered by Japanese reading English are focused on and suggestions are made for how the teaching of reading in Japan could be improved. In "A Study of Trends of

College English Reading Textbooks in Japan: An Analysis of College English Reading Textbooks for 1985," written with Shinsuke Yoshida, Haruyo Yoshida, Kinji Kawamura, and Makoto Kurata, reading textbooks published in 1985 were examined and characteristics were identified. In "Independent Reading in English — Use of Graded Readers in the Library English as a Second Language Corner — ," written with Masayo Yamamoto and Hiroshi Shimatani, an independent reading program is described and the results of a study are reported. In "Getting Students to Read Actively," characteristics of materials, activities, and ways of managing reading classes that encourage students to participate actively are described. "Teaching English through Newspapers" is about ways of using newspapers in an English reading class. It includes ways of teaching students to look at the organization of a newspaper, what is on the front page, how news articles are organized, and so on.

The fourth section is "Teaching Culture." In "Teaching Culture in Foreign Language Instruction in the United States," the history of teaching culture in language courses is reviewed and various aspects of teaching culture are examined, including techniques that have been developed and the benefits of teaching culture. In "Teaching American Culture: Content, Methods, and Techniques," ideas on what to teach about American culture are suggested. Study-abroad programs are discussed, along with how students are prepared for them and how orientation programs could be improved. In "Developing Reading Materials for Teaching American Culture in English Courses," reasons for teaching culture are discussed and suggestions are made for how materials for teaching about American culture can be developed.

The next section is "Using Technology in Language Teaching." In "Administration of Language Laboratories in Colleges," the results of major studies on the use of language laboratories are summarized, and administration, types of facilities, attached facilities, the use of language laboratories, and so on, are discussed. In "The History of Language Laboratories — Origin and Establishment —," language laboratories are discussed from the invention of the phonograph in 1877, which made the first language laboratories possible, through the passage of the National Defense Education Act in 1958. In "Combining Slide Presentations with Reading and Listening," materials which use slides and an audio tape program to teach about culture are described. "Using Authentic Video Materials in the Language Classroom" is about the advantages and disadvantages of using video in the classroom and how teachers can make support materials for authentic video.

The last section is "Using Computers in Language Teaching." "Developing English CBI Programs at Doshisha University" describes how computers are used in language classes at Doshisha University, and "Effects of English CBI at Doshisha University" describes reading courses. In "Individualizing English Instruction Using Computers," justifications for individualized instruction are discussed, along with ways that computers can be used. Finally, in "Students' Evaluation of CAI English Classes," the results of a study based on students' reports and responses to questionnaires about CAI classes are detailed.

We published another book, *Intercultural Communication: Between Japan and the United States*, in the fall of 1989. That was a collection of papers on communication we had worked on for twenty years. It was well received and the second printing is circulating now.

The following papers were originally published in other places, and we have either revised them to bring them up to date or have revised them slightly without updating them, as the notes of those papers specify.

1. Teaching English in Japan (1985)
   In K. Kitao, K. Nozawa, Y. Oda, T. N. Robb, M. Sugimori, and M. Yamamoto (Eds.), *TEFL in Japan: Jushu Nen Kinen Ronbunshu* [TEFL in Japan: JALT 10th Anniversary Collected Papers]. Kyoto:

Japan Association of Language Teachers.
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2. Reading and Evaluating Quantitative Research (1994)
*Bulletin of the Institute for Interdisciplinary Studies of Culture, Doshisha Women's College, 11.*
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4. Process and Social Aspects of Writing: Theory and Classroom Application (1992)
*Doshisha Women's College Annual Reports of Studies, 43.*
ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 369 288

7. Difficulties Japanese Have in Reading English (1987)
In K. Kitao and S. K. Kitao (Eds.), *Intercultural Communication: Between Japan and Japanese.* Tokyo: Eichosha.
ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 278 214

9. A Study of Trends of College English Reading Textbooks in Japan: An Analysis of College English Reading Textbooks for 1985 (1988)
*Doshisha Literature*, No. 33.
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10. Independent Reading in English — Use of Graded Readers in the Library English as a Second Language Corner — (1990)
*Reading in a Foreign Language, 6.*
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11. Getting Students to Read Actively (1994)
*Doshisha Studies in English*, No. 63
ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. (in press)

12. Teaching English through Newspapers (1995)
*Doshisha Literature*, No. 38
ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. (in press)

13. Teaching Culture in Foreign Language Instruction in the United States (1991)
*Doshisha Studies in English, 52-53.*
ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 330 214

16. Developing Reading Materials for Teaching American Culture in English Courses (1982)
Supplement to *English Teaching* (The College English Teachers Association of Korea), *24.*

ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 224 286

18. The History of Language Laboratories
    — Origin and Establishment — (1994)
    ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. (in press)
19. Motivating Students to Learn English by Combining Slide Presentations with Reading and Listening (1990)
    *Speech Communication Education, 3.*
    ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 268 780
20. Using Authentic Video Materials in the Language Classroom (1985)
    *Cross Currents, 12.*
21. Introduction to CAI English Classes (1994)
    *Foreign Language Education in Japan and Korea: Prospects for the 21st Century* [Proceedings of the 2nd Japan-Korea International Symposium]
    ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. (in press)
22. Developing English CBI Programs at Doshisha University (1992)
    *Doshisha Business Review, 43.*
    ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 348 876
23. Effects of CBI at Doshisha University (1993)
    ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. (in press)
24. Individualizing English Instruction Using Computers (1994)
    *Doshisha Studies in English, 62.*
    ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. (in press)
25. Students' Evaluation of CAI English Classes (1995)
    *Doshisha Studies in English*, No. 64.
    ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. (in press)
26. Organizing a CAI Contest (1995)
    In K. Kitao, S. K. Kitao, J. H. Miller, and C. Rinnert (Eds). *Culture and Communication.* Kyoto: Yamaguchi Shoten
    ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. (in press)

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We also wish to thank Mr. Shozo Doki, president of Eichosha, for publishing this book, because it is not easy to publish an academic book written in English. Finally, we would like to thank our editor, Ms. Chiyo Iizumi, for her good work in editing this book.

Kenji Kitao, Ph.D.
S. Kathleen Kitao, Ph.D.
Kyoto, Japan
December, 1994

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# I. Background

1. Teaching English in Japan ······································ 3

# 1. Teaching English in Japan

S. Kathleen Kitao
Kenji Kitao
Kazunori Nozawa
Masayo Yamamoto

## Abstract

English education is very important in Japan. Almost all secondary students take English courses, and the curricula of many universities require it. In addition, many people of all ages take English courses at English conversation schools, at the companies where they work, or using television or radio programs.

In this paper, we have discussed some reasons why Japanese people study English, a brief history of English education in Japan, and the state of English education in elementary schools, secondary schools, universities, English language schools, and companies. We have also explained the content of teacher training courses.

## Introduction

English education is very important in Japan. English is offered in more than 99% of all junior highs and high schools (Hoshiyama, 1978), and almost all students take it, even though it is an elective (Kumabe, 1978). A foreign language is required for many university degrees, and most students take English. In addition, hundreds of thousands of Japanese study English at private English conversation schools or in English courses offered by their companies. Both radio and television offer English courses for different levels of ability, and hundreds of thousands of Japanese people study English this way.

Why do the Japanese study English? There are a number of reasons.

One of the original reasons that the Japanese had for studying foreign languages — and one that has continued to be important — is learning from the outside world. In more recent years, the Japanese have also felt the necessity to express themselves to the outside world, to explain Japanese culture, ways of thinking, and positions on various issues to non-Japanese people (Hisano, 1976). As an increasing number of Japanese people go abroad, it is useful for them to be able to express themselves to non-Japanese people. Because English is becoming the international language, it is natural that the Japanese would choose English as the foreign language with which to communicate with non-Japanese people. The close relationship between Japan and the US has also influenced the choice of English.

For Japanese people, English is also a way to learn about other cultures. Since Japan is a relatively homogeneous country, it is especially important for the Japanese to learn about various cultures and the ways of living and ways of thinking of other people. Studying English is a way for them to do this.

Studying English and English-speaking cultures also helps Japanese people have greater insight into Japan, the Japanese culture, and the Japanese language.

## The History of English Education in Japan

English was first taught in Japan following the brief stop at Nagasaki of a British ship in 1808. Since the Japanese found that they could not communicate at all with the sailors from that ship, the Tokugawa government ordered the interpreters to add the study of English to their study of Dutch, French, and Russian. The first English teacher in Japan was a Dutchman who probably did not know much English himself (Omura, 1978).

In 1853, Japan was forced to open by the Americans, and the study of English began in earnest. Two dominant methods emerged early in the history of English teaching in Japan. One emphasized correct pronunciation as well as meaning, and the other emphasized meaning and not pronunciation or syntax. It was observed that students who learned by the second method seemed to have better comprehension, while students who had learned by the first method were compared to "reading machines" with correct pronunciation but with little understanding of what they were reading (Omura, 1978).

In the 1890's, a system of language teaching was established. English was compulsory in middle and higher secondary schools. It was the main foreign language, while French and German were offered in higher schools as a second foreign language. Language study was closely associated with Westernization. English was mostly taught by native English speakers, including many Christian missionaries. English-medium classes were held at institutions of higher learning, and most textbooks came from the US. Many students developed a good command of English during this time. In the early 1900's, foreign texts and teachers were gradually replaced by Japanese texts and teachers. Japanese scholars who had studied abroad became influential in the field of English education. Some of their ideas seem amazingly current. For example, Kanda Naibu advocated use of the target language as much as possible in the classroom, exclusion or reduction of translation, extensive teaching of the target culture, and inductive learning of grammar. English became primarily a subject of study, mainly learned for the purpose of reading written texts, instead of a means of communication.

In 1921, Harold E. Palmer, an English linguist and specialist in language teaching, was invited to Japan and became an advisor to the Ministry of Education. He advocated the Oral and Direct

Methods. His methods were used in various parts of Japan and obtained good results. Unfortunately, they required a command of English far beyond that of most Japanese teachers of English and so never came into general use.

Shortly before and during World War II, the study of English was discouraged, because it was the "enemy language." However, this policy was reversed after the war. The school system was reorganized so that there were six years of elementary school, three years of junior high school, three years of high school, and four years of college. Today, education is compulsory through the third year of junior high school, but 94% of all Japanese junior high school graduates go on to high school (Nihon Kyoiku Nenkan Kanko Iinkai, 1985). Foreign languages are offered as electives in the reorganized junior high and high schools, and the most common foreign language is English.

## English in Elementary Schools

There are three types of elementary schools in Japan — municipal elementary schools, elementary schools attached to national universities, and private elementary schools. More than 99% of the elementary schools in Japan are of the first type. They are rigidly controlled by the Ministry of Education, and their curricula do not include foreign languages. Some of the private and university-associated elementary schools provide English courses, so less than 1% of the elementary schools in Japan offer English (Nogami, 1978). Most of these are in the Tokyo and Osaka areas (Nogami, 1978). Some of these offer English as part of the regular curriculum; others only offer it occasionally as an extra-curricular activity. English classes at the elementary level tend to emphasize oral/aural English rather than reading, and a few of them even have language laboratories.

Some elementary-level students study English at *jukus* — private "cram" schools that offer private tutoring in various subjects. The purpose of *jukus* is to prepare students for entrance examinations to high school and university. In the Tokyo area, thirty percent of the elementary students attend *jukus* (Nihon Kodomo o Mamoru Kai, 1984).

### English in Junior High Schools

Most Japanese students start studying English when they enter the first year of junior high school at age twelve. The Ministry of Education does not require English in Japanese public secondary schools though some individual schools require it. However, due to the fact that English is an important factor — often a decisive one — on high school and university entrance examinations, almost all junior high school students take English (Kumabe, 1978). In addition to studying English at school, many students attend *jukus*. In the Tokyo area, 75% of the junior high students attend *jukus*.

Public schools offered five hours per week of English until 1981, when the number of hours was reduced to three. The content of the English courses offered in public junior high schools is dictated by the Ministry of Education's Course of Study. According to the Course of Study, the purpose of English education is to give students a practical command of written and spoken English and to promote understanding of the cultural and social backgrounds of English-speaking people. It is also intended to help students develop individuality and social, civic, and vocational competence, and to understand the democratic heritage, since democracy developed, to an important extent, in English-speaking countries (Kimizuka, 1968). The Course of Study prescribes what sounds, sentence patterns, words, and grammatical categories are to be taught in junior high English classes each year. For example, up to 1,050 words can be taught in junior high school, and a list of 490 words must be taught. The Course of Study also dictates which aspects of culture, geography, history, and so on, should be included. It also supplies specific activities for developing different skills (Imura, 1978).

The textbooks used in junior high English classes must be approved by the Ministry according to strict guidelines set down by the Ministry. Draft copies of proposed junior high textbooks are examined by Ministry officials and "outside experts," mostly school teachers and university professors, to see whether the texts conform to the guidelines. Textbooks for junior high schools are chosen by each district for all of its schools, with the advice of the prefectural board of education. Individual teachers have no control over the texts used in their classes. There are only five different junior high school textbooks used in public schools, and one of them is used in half of all junior high schools. Students and teachers complain that these textbooks put too much emphasis on following the guidelines of the Ministry of Education on grammatical aspects and not enough on interesting content (Imura, 1978).

English taught in junior high school is particularly important. For most students, this is their first formal education in English, and it is important that they make a good beginning. However, high school teachers are, as a rule, better qualified than junior high teachers (Kumabe, 1978). Also, classes are relatively large — about forty students in each class. Many students start studying English in junior high school with eager anticipation. Unfortunately, due to the emphasis on memorization and learning about English, rather than using English for the purpose of communication, many lose interest, and it gradually becomes their least favorite subject.

## High School English Education

High school English classes are also controlled by the guidelines in the Ministry of Education's Course of Study. The goals of English classes listed in the Course of Study also apply to high school English courses. As in junior high schools, the content of courses — the vocabulary, grammatical items, etc., that are taught — are prescribed for each year. A maximum of 1,900 words may be introduced (Monbusho, 1979), so a high school graduate has usually learned less than three thousand words while in secondary school.

The content of high school English courses is heavily influenced by the content of university entrance examinations. Unfortunately, there is a large gap between the level of English in the third year of junior high school and the first year of high school.

Public high schools offer four hours of English per week. English I, which students take during their first year of high school, is an extension of junior high school English. English II (reading) is offered during the second and third years of high school. It is supplemented by English IIA (speaking), English IIB (advanced reading), and English IIC (writing).

Some high schools also offer supplementary English lessons before or after school or during vacations to help prepare students for university entrance exams. If their high school does not offer supplementary lessons, students may attend classes at *jukus* or may have a private tutor. In the Tokyo area, thirty-three percent of the high school students attend *jukus* (Nihon Kodomo o Mamoru Kai, 1984).

The typical high school English class is based on a reader and grammar book. Like junior high textbooks, they must be approved by the Ministry of Education. In the case of high school textbooks, the texts are chosen by the school rather than the district. Still, the individual teacher has little control over the textbooks. Students prepare for a class in advance by writing Japanese equivalents next to English words and phrases. In class, a student reads the resulting translation. The teacher reads a model or correct translation and comments on difficult grammatical points. The teacher also models reading aloud the English version of the lesson, and students repeat after the teacher (Hisano, 1976).

For grammar classes, the text is divided into grammatical categories. Each category is accompanied by examples, explanations, and exercises.

Composition classes consist of translation of Japanese into English, not free writing. The Japanese is usually in short sentences, unconnected in content.

Private schools often have more hours of English per week than do public schools. They typically offer five to six hours of reading and one to two hours of conversation.

### University Entrance Examinations

University entrance examinations usually include sections on translation from English into Japanese, reading passages with questions on the content, and items where students must choose the correct word to fill in the blank, to test knowledge of grammar, as well as questions on points of prescriptive grammar, often hair-splitting points. Some questions are so difficult and tricky that even native English speakers have difficulty answering them (Ogasawara, 1983). The entrance examinations do not emphasize English as it is actually used but rather "grammar book English." Most examinations do not require performance in English. Even translation items put more emphasis on understanding the nuances of grammar, rather than on the ability to express oneself in English (Kumabe, 1978). Only a very few entrance examinations include sections that test students' ability in aural English. Entrance examinations require considerable knowledge about English, but offer little or no opportunity to demonstrate ability to perform in English.

There are two types of entrance examinations. One is a uniform exam, administered nationally, the results of which are used by many national universities and other public universities. In addition, many schools have their own individual exams.

### University English Courses

Most four-year universities require all students to take two foreign languages. Non-English majors take a minimum of eight to twelve credits in the first foreign language — usually English — and four credits in the second — usually French or German. Non-English majors in junior colleges take two to four credits of English, and English majors take 46. As between junior high and high school, there is a large gap between the level of English required in the third year of high school and the first year of university.

More than 3,500 college textbooks have been published in Japan, with 150 more published each year. Sixty-nine percent of these are readers, and most of the readers contain only prose — English or American novels or essays and articles (Koike, 1982), typically with notes in Japanese. Most of them do not have exercises to help students understand the readings. Many teachers choose their textbooks according to their own interests — often literature — rather than according to the students' goals for studying English and their interests.

At the university level, most English classes are reading classes. Professors generally ask students in the reading class to translate sentences into Japanese, covering from five to ten pages of the textbook in the ninety-minute class period (Koike, 1982). Most textbooks contain essays or prose, so students do not have opportunities to develop strategies for dealing with other literary forms, such as dialogues, newspaper articles, advertisements, brochures, etc. (Kitao and Kitao, 1982). Studies of students' reading ability show that they have particular difficulties in dealing with these types of literary forms (Kitao and Miyamoto, 1982).

Another problem that students have with English is that they do not know much about English-speaking cultures. Since language and culture are closely linked, a knowledge of the target culture is necessary for successful communication, but culture is taught neither extensively nor well in English classes in Japan (Kitao, 1978).

Many Japanese say that they can read English, but they cannot speak it. Can they actually read it? What most Japanese students consider reading is finding a Japanese equivalent for each English word. They know the meaning of each word in Japanese and of the individual Japanese sentences that they have formed, but they do not understand how the individual sentences fit together or what the meaning of the passage is as a whole (Kitao, 1983).

One problem that college students have in reading is that they read slowly, usually only 50-100 words per minute (Kitao, 1983). Because a certain amount of speed is necessary in reading for comprehending the overall content (Kitao and Miyamoto, 1983), students have difficulty understanding the main idea of a certain passage.

As in high school, most composition classes do not actually require students to write compositions. The classes consist of translating Japanese passages into English (Koike, 1982).

## Teacher Training Programs

English teachers are trained in universities of education or in universities with teacher training courses. Teachers in public junior highs and high schools are required to have teaching certificates. National requirements for the teaching certificate include six credits in English linguistics, six in English literature, two in composition and conversation, 16 credits in related subjects such as American literature, and fourteen credits in professional courses, including educational psychology, methods, educational principles, and practice teaching (Torii, 1983). These requirements do not emphasize teaching methods, practice teaching or performance in English. For example, many composition classes only require students to translate unrelated sentences from English into Japanese, not to write compositions. Methods classes are usually too large to give students the opportunity to actually practice using the methods that they learn. These classes must cover the history and theory of English teaching, the law as it relates to English education, the Course of Study, and so on, as well as methods. As a result, little time can be spent studying or practicing teaching methods.

In order to be hired, a graduate who has received a teaching certificate must also pass a prefectural or municipal hiring examination. Several times more graduates receive certificates than are hired to teach. Hiring examinations also emphasize theoretical knowledge rather than performance.

### English in Private Language Schools

Because high school and college classes are large, depend heavily on translation, do not offer much opportunity to build skills in aural/oral English, include students of widely varying proficiency, and have relatively few native English speakers as teachers, private language schools are popular in Japan (Oura and Tada, 1978). The aims of their English classes are usually practical. They stress improving students' English proficiency and communication skills, especially in interpersonal communication. They also emphasize increasing students' knowledge of English-speaking cultures and making them "international persons" (Itabashi, 1978).

In language schools, classes are usually small, compared to those in high schools and colleges. Students are, in theory, placed according to their level of ability in English rather than their age or grade level. However, in practice, classes may be combined so that students of different levels are in the same class.

Students attend language schools for a variety of reasons. Some feel that it will be useful on the job; others plan to use it while traveling abroad or receiving foreign guests. For some students, studying English is mainly a hobby. Others see it as proof of intellectual attainment (since people who can understand English are considered well educated) or a way to learn more about other cultures, since language schools put more emphasis on studying the cultures of English-speaking countries than do high schools or colleges (Oura and Tada, 1978).

The format of classes in language schools varies widely. Some emphasize mainly oral/aural skills. Others offer classes in the four skills, either together or in different classes. Oral/aural classes are skill-based and communication-oriented. Reading classes in a language school would be likely to concentrate on extensive reading, in contrast to the intensive reading and translation generally found in high school or college reading classes. Writing classes focus on development of structural patterns and idiomatic expressions in free writing rather than translation (Nozawa, 1984).

Teachers in language schools tend to prefer textbooks to be current English textbooks or culture-oriented texts. They usually avoid the works of literature favored by college professors, preferring to give their students a more up-to-date exposure to English.

Language schools often have some sort of objective criteria for judging the progress that their students make. For example, criteria for listening skills might be 60% comprehension of the news or more than fifty points on the listening section of the TOEFL.

Because language schools emphasize the practical aspects of oral English and teaching about English speaking cultures, many of them have a variety of teaching media available for teachers, including tape recorders, language laboratories, films, video tapes, and slides. Teachers use tape recorders most frequently. Language laboratories seem to be underused in many language schools, since some teachers feel that it is too complicated and difficult to use or there is not enough good software available for language teaching. Recently, some schools have obtained computers, but they, too, tend to be underused due to a lack of good software (Nozawa, 1984).

Many native English speakers are hired as teachers in language schools, either part time or full time. Most of these teach aural/oral English classes. Some teach composition (Nozawa, 1984).

## Company English Programs

In Japan, many companies provide their employees with language classes. Since Japanese employees usually stay with the same company for their entire working life, Japanese companies spend a relatively large amount of money on training for their employees. When the need arises for employees with a certain skill, Japanese companies train existing employees rather than hiring new employees with that skill. (Takubo, 1978). Many of these companies need employees with a higher proficiency in foreign languages, mainly English, and skill in communicating with non-Japanese people in order to carry on business activities effectively. Some offer English classes solely for the purpose of self-development.

The companies most likely to offer language programs to their employees are manufacturing companies (Kitao, 1984). This is due to the fact that Japanese manufacturing companies have been rapidly expanding their international activities, and because their employees do not generally have much background in foreign languages.

Company classes usually emphasize speaking English and comprehending spoken English. Companies who offer English classes seem to feel that oral/aural skills are the most important for their employees.

Company programs fall into three major categories: in-company programs, out-of-company programs, and study abroad (Hashimoto and Lau, 1983). The most common company programs are in-company programs. Most companies offering in-company English classes contract to offer them through private language schools. These language schools handle the administrative and technical aspects of the program, including hiring teachers, choosing or developing texts and materials, and deciding on methods used. However, the person within the company who is responsible for the language program is not usually a professional in the language education field.

Since in-company programs emphasize oral/aural skills, most of the teachers hired to teach in them are native English speakers. Some of these companies hold classes during working hours, and others after working hours. A few companies offer classes before working hours.

Some of the companies that offer English classes include proficiency testing for those about to study abroad or for the purpose of motivating employees. A few of these companies use their own testing system, but most rely on such standard tests as STEP, TOEFL, TOEIC and the Michigan Test.

Some companies send employees to outside language institutes for language learning. Companies that do this pay either all or part of the fees for the language classes. In some cases, the amount of aid depends on the employee's success in the course. Employees go to these classes during or after working hours.

Some companies send employees abroad specifically to improve their language proficiency. These employees either train in universities or in related companies. Some of the companies that send employees overseas for language training require their employees to stay with the company for a specified period of time after their return to Japan. Employees are sometimes rewarded for successful completion of the study-abroad program by being made candidates for further training for the company's international activities or are immediately transferred to a position that allows him/her to use the language abilities developed abroad.

Company employees need more than linguistic competence. Some Japanese companies have begun to include an intercultural component to help their employees learn to communicate with native English speakers on business and social levels. The intercultural component develops intercultural communication skills and gives students a greater appreciation of their own as well as others' cultures (Takubo, 1978).

## Recent Changes[1]

Since this paper was originally written in 1985, some changes have taken place in English education in Japan. Among the most important changes are: the introduction of assistant English teachers, the expansion of computer-assisted instruction, required oral communication courses in secondary schools, and the removal of the foreign language requirements in colleges by the Ministry of Education.

### Assistant English Teachers

A relatively recent change in both junior high and high schools is the program through which the Ministry of Education has brought people from English-speaking countries to assist Japanese English teachers in secondary schools. The program is intended to expose students to spoken English and to English-speaking cultures. It started in 1988 with 815 teachers and has grown every year since then. As of the 1993 academic year, there were 3500 assistant English teachers (AETs) in Japan. The growth of this program reflects the increasing emphasis on spoken English in language teaching in Japan, and the program is expected to continue to grow (Murakami, 1994).

### Computer-Assisted Instruction

Computer-assisted instruction (CAI) has expanded a great deal in the past ten years, with more computers and software becoming available and more schools making use of computers. Though CAI is not a panacea for all the problems of English education, it does offer potential in many areas. One such area is individualized instruction. With CAI, students can choose their own materials according to appropriate difficulty levels, content in which they are interested, their goals and purpose for studying English, etc., and study at their own pace. (For a more complete discussion of the use of computers in individualized instruction, see "Individualizing English Instruction Using Computers" in this volume.)

### Oral Communication

Oral communication courses, emphasizing listening, speech and debate, etc., have become more important in secondary schools. This greater emphasis on oral/aural English may result in improved listening and speaking skills and more emphasis on using English as a means of communication, especially if college entrance exams also increase the weight that they give these skills. However, the change is still recent, and the consequences remain to be seen.

### Removal of Language Requirements

Due to changes in Ministry of Education regulations, universities no longer have to require students to take eight credits of a foreign language. Since this change is new, it is not yet clear what the result will be, but schools may reduce or eliminate language requirements or they may increase the requirements or give students a greater variety of choices about how they fulfill their language requirements.

Due to space limitations, we are able to discuss only a few of the aspects of English teaching in Japan. However, we hope that this paper is a helpful introduction to English education in Japan for native English speakers.

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## Note

[1] This section was added in 1994 by Kathleen Kitao and Kenji Kitao.

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# 2. Reading and Evaluating Quantitative Research

S. Kathleen Kitao

## Abstract

Language teachers need to be able to read research papers, because it is important for them to be aware of advances in fields related to language teaching. However, the fact that a piece of research has been published does not mean that its results are valid, so teachers must also critically evaluate what they read to decide whether the conclusions that the researcher draws are supported by the research. In this paper, I explained concepts related to research design (constructs, dependent and independent variables, control variables, hypotheses, and variance), potential threats to the validity of research, and how these threats can influence the results of research. The parts of a research paper and what information can be expected in each are described. This information will help language teachers better understand and evaluate quantitative research.

Language teachers, like members of many other professions, need to read research papers in order to keep up with developments in their profession. Research is, in fact, expanding rapidly in the field of language teaching, so the ability to read and understand research is becoming increasingly important (Dean, 1988). However, the results of studies should not necessarily be taken at face value. Some of the research that gets published is not well designed, and these problems in research design may allow for explanations of the results that are not considered by the researchers. Therefore, readers of research need to have the ability to evaluate the research design to see whether the research done actually supports the results or whether there may be other explanations for the results.

Research papers are usually divided into four sections — the introduction or literature review, the methods section, the results, and the discussion and conclusions section. It is tempting, in reading research papers, to read the first and last sections most closely. They are the most interesting sections, the ones most likely to have useful information. The methods and results sections do not seem very important, so in the interest of time, they may be skipped altogether. However, this kind of attitude is actually dangerous — without reading and carefully evaluating the methods section, readers do not know whether the research design has problems that allows for rival explanations of the results. Readers cannot judge whether what the researchers claim they found is actually supported by the results of the study (Dean, 1988). In this paper, I am going to discuss concepts related to research design and then potential problems of research design and how they might be overcome.

It should be noted that this paper deals with quantitative research, that is, research that depends on expressing constructs in numbers and makes use of statistical analysis of those numbers. (Qualitative research, in contrast, depends more on the subjective observations of the researchers.) Qualitative research, while interrelated with quantitative research, is based on different principles, so the principles discussed in this paper are not intended to be applied to the evaluation of qualitative research.

## Some Definitions

In order to evaluate research design, it is necessary to clearly understand the basic components of a research study. In this section, I will discuss definitions of various components and distinctions made among them.

### Variables and Constructs

The most basic component of any study is its variables. A variable is, most simply, something that varies. It is a value that changes over time or differs among individuals. Some examples of variables are age, income, and IQ score.

**Dependent and independent variables**. A crucial distinction made among variables is between independent and dependent variables. Independent variables are variables that are hypothesized to be a cause or to have an influence on another variable. Dependent variables are variables that are hypothesized to be an effect or to be affected by another variable.

Variables are not inherently dependent or independent; how a variable is classified depends on how it is linked to other variables in a hypothesis. (A hypothesis is the statement of relationships among variables.) For example, if the hypothesis is that students taught using method X will achieve higher scores on a language proficiency test than students taught using method Y, the method is the independent variable and the language proficiency score is the dependent variable. Conversely, if the hypothesis is that students with high language proficiency scores will attain a higher grade point average in an American university than students with low scores, then the language proficiency score is the independent variable and the GPA is the dependent variable. Therefore, a particular variable can be either independent or dependent, depending on the hypothesis.

**Control variables**. Another type of variable is the control variable. Control variables are extraneous variables that must be kept constant, or controlled, because they may have an effect on the dependent variable. For example, if the hypothesis states that students with higher language proficiency scores will attain a higher GPA, it might be necessary to control for IQ scores, since IQ might also influence GPA. In such a case, the IQ score would be a control variable.

**Constructs and variables**. In considering research, it is important to understand the relationship between a construct and a variable. A variable is essentially what we can observe or quantify of characteristics or abilities, while a construct is the underlying characteristic or ability itself. For example, English proficiency is not something that can be seen or measured directly. However, it can be measured indirectly using various instruments, and the results of these instruments are variables. The variable for the construct of English proficiency might, for example, be a TOEFL score or some other language test score. It is important to keep in mind, however, that though the TOEFL score is intended to reflect language proficiency, it is not language proficiency. In evaluating research, it is necessary to consider whether the instruments used to measure the variables do actually reflect the underlying construct they are intended to reflect.

Therefore, an important issue related to the difference between a construct and a variable is operationalization. Operationalization is the link between the construct and the way it is measured; the operational definition of a variable is the way that it is measured or quantified. For example, English proficiency might be operationalized as a TOEFL score, a rating of a person's ability to carry on a conversation in English under certain conditions, or the results of a reading test.

There are two requirements for an operational definition. It must be conceptually linked to the construct that it is intended to represent, and it must be unique to that construct, that is, it must measure that construct and no other. For example, a test of listening proficiency that requires some reading may also be measuring reading proficiency, that is, the score for listening proficiency may be influenced by the participant's ability to read. In that case, the operational definition includes a construct that the researcher did not intend to measure.

Operational definitions are important for three reasons (Hatch and Lazaraton, 1991). A clear operational definition allows the researcher to be consistent throughout the research; it allows readers of the research to clearly understand the findings; and it allows other researchers to replicate the research.

In considering the relationship between variables and constructs, it is necessary to consider how the researcher defines a construct, if that definition is specified. Whether a variable truly reflects a construct is, in part, dependent on how that construct is defined. For example, if the definition of English proficiency is related to the ability to communicate in English, then a TOEFL score is not a good operationalization.

**Hypotheses.** In quantitative research, unless the study is a pilot study, the expected relationship among the variables will be specified in the form of one or more hypotheses, which are tested in the study. The researchers should give logical arguments or cite previous studies to support these hypotheses (Personal communication, James L. Stiff, 1986).

**Questions about the basics of a study.** In order to understand a study clearly, it is helpful to ask several questions about its variables and constructs, and their operationalization. What are the constructs and variables involved in the study? Are they clearly identified and defined? Are the operational definitions of the variables clearly linked to the constructs they are intended to represent and not to any other constructs? Is the relationship that the researcher has specified among the variables supported by previous literature and/or logical arguments?

## Variance and Control

Two more concepts that are basic to an understanding of research are variance and control. In this section, I will discuss these concepts and their application to research design.

The goal of research design is testing hypotheses. In order to test hypotheses, two things are necessary — variance and control. Variance is having different values for the dependent variables. For example, if all participants in a study are approximately equal in language proficiency, it is impossible to test a hypothesis related to language proficiency.

Control is the ability to explain as much of the variance as possible. The more variance there is that cannot be explained, the less control there has been in the study. Lack of control allows for rival explanations for the results.

### Types of Variance

Variance can be divided into three types — systematic experimental variance, extraneous variance, and error variance. Systematic experimental variance is differences in dependent variables caused by the experimental manipulation and statistical control (that is, the effect of the independent variable). This is the type of variance that researchers want to maximize. Extraneous variance is caused by unspecified and unidentified variables. Error variance is variance caused by sloppy experimental procedures, errors in measurement, coding errors, key punching errors, etc. Obviously, the latter two types of variance should be minimized.

In quantitative research, the purpose of research design is to achieve control — to minimize the extraneous variance. Researchers must try, as much as possible, to either keep variables (other than the independent variables) constant that might influence the dependent variables or measure them and control their influence statistically.

## Threats to Validity

### Internal and External Validity

With this background, I will discuss some of the threats to the validity of the results of research. In general, these threats can be divided into two categories — threats to internal validity and threats to external validity. *Internal validity* is the degree to which we can attribute variance to the experimental manipulation. This concept is related to control, discussed in the last section, in that threats to internal validity are factors that reduce control and increase extraneous variance. *External validity* is the extent to which the results of the study can be generalized.

### Threats to External Validity

In considering the external validity, the reader of a study must consider whether the conditions found in the study have any relationship to the "real world." For example, a study of the effectiveness of a language teaching method may involve using the method only once or only over a short period of time. Since, for the most part, language classes use a method over a much longer period of time — possibly several months — there have to be questions about the external validity of such a study.

The selection of participants in the study may also have an influence on the extent to which the results of a study can be generalized. If the participants in a study are selected from non-native speakers studying English in the United States, it is difficult to generalize the findings to students of English who live in countries where English is a foreign language.

### Threats to Internal Validity

Threats to internal validity can be divided into several categories according to the issues that they are related to. In this section, I will discuss each of these categories and the problems related to them.

**Grouping issues**. The first category is grouping issues. These are threats to validity related to the ways that participants for a study are chosen and grouped, as well as their continued participation, and how these influence the results of the study.

In quantitative research, ideally participants are selected at random. This helps assure that the sample reflects the population that they are intended to represent. (The *sample* is the actual participants in the study; the *population* is the group of people that the study is intended to be generalized to. For example, the sample may be a group of randomly chosen students at an American college; the population may be all American college students.) However, it is not always possible to randomly select participants, and so researchers often resort to other ways of choosing participants including self-selection and using intact groups. Each of these represents a threat to internal validity.

*Self-selection* is the common practice of having participants volunteer to join the study. This is particularly a problem when participants who volunteered are compared to participants who did not (e.g., who participate in the study as part of a class). Obviously, participants who volunteer to participate in a study may be different from people who don't. For example, if volunteers are used in a study of a language learning method, the volunteers are likely to be more motivated and may have a higher language aptitude and a higher proficiency than non-volunteers. Therefore, researchers must avoid comparing volunteer and non-volunteer groups, and they have to be cautious about generalizing from volunteers to the general population. While it is desirable to avoid self-selection, it is not always practical – researchers are not always in a position to require randomly chosen participants to participate in a study. Therefore, if self-selection is used, researchers need to acknowledge the self-selection and its possible effects on the results, taking particular care in comparing volunteer and non-volunteer groups and generalizing from a volunteer sample to the general population.

The use of intact groups is also a potential problem. This is the practice of using existing classes or other existing groups as participants in a study. There are two major problems with this practice. One problem is that the groups may differ in some variable, since they have not been randomly assigned to the groups. One group might, on average, have a higher language proficiency or might have spent more time in English-speaking countries. If so, the groups are not necessarily comparable and differences between them on the dependent variables may be explained by preexisting differences in the two groups rather than the independent variables. In addition, the different intact groups may have already established ways of interacting among themselves, and this may influence the dependent variable as well. This would be a particular problem in doing research on, for example, a teaching method, because the interaction among the members of the class may influence the effectiveness of the method.

Researchers should avoid intact groups if possible and instead assign participants to groups randomly. However, in many cases, this is not feasible, and in such cases, there are ways to minimize the resulting problems. Researchers can identify other variables that might influence the dependent variable, measure them, and use statistical procedures to determine whether they have influenced the outcome and to control them. Researchers might also time a study to begin shortly after the group is formed (e.g., at the beginning of a semester) when ways of interacting are not yet established.

Another issue related to the participants is mortality. *Mortality* is the dropping out of participants from the study for any reason. This is a problem because the participants who drop out may be different on some variable than those who do not. In addition, mortality can change the mean of the group on some characteristic. Researchers should specify how many participants dropped from the study and why. If possible, they should try to find out whether these participants were different on any important variables from participants who did not drop out.

**Time-related effects.** Another category of threats to validity is time-related effects. These are related to the passage of time between the beginning and end of a study.

One type of time-related threat to validity is history effects. *His-*

*tory effects* are the effects of incidents not related to the study that intervene between the beginning and end of the study and which may have an effect on the results of the study. For example, a current event might intervene in a study of changes in attitudes over time and may affect the attitudes in ways that are not related to the researcher's manipulations or any variables that are being considered. In order to be aware of history effects, researchers should try to have sources in the setting where they are researching in order to find out about any possible history effects, and, if possible, they should talk to research participants as well. Having control groups also helps, since the history effect would presumably influence both groups, and any difference between the two could be attributed to the manipulation. (However, control groups do not eliminate the problem entirely, because it is still possible to have an interaction between the manipulation and the history effect.) Finally, the study should not be continued any longer than necessary. (There may, however, be other reasons to continue a study over a long period of time, so researchers have to find a balance between the advantages of having a long study and those of keeping the study short.) This is obviously a very important issue in the area of language teaching methodology, since external validity depends partly on using the method over time.

Another type of time-related effects is maturation effects. *Maturation effects* are normal changes in participants over time. In studies related to language teaching, these changes are probably most obvious in children, since their muscle control, their competence in their own language, etc., are still maturing, but maturation can be a factor in studies with adults, too. In a study done with non-native English speakers living in an English-speaking country, the fact that participants are in an English-speaking environment will certainly influence their language proficiency, independent of the manipulation in the study. Again, having a control group and keeping the study short help limit the effects of maturation or at least allow researchers to recognize them. In addition, researchers may use two pretests, a treatment, and then a posttest, and then compare the two pretests in order to find out if there is maturation occurring.

**People-related effects**. A third category of threat to validity is people-related issues. This category is related to the attitudes of those involved in the study, both participants and researchers.

One people-related effect is called the Hawthorne Effect. In some cases, just the fact of being involved in a study and/or the novelty of the treatment itself can cause participants to perform better than they normally would. Therefore, when researching the effectiveness of a new language teaching method, researchers have to take into account that the very novelty of the new method might have an effect on the results, not the characteristics of the method itself.

Another type of people-related effect is participant expectancy. If participants understand what the study is about or what the researchers expect of them, they may consciously or unconsciously try to give the researcher the effect that he/she is looking for. To the greatest extent possible, subjects should be blind to the purpose of the study and the hypotheses being tested.

Another type of people-related effect is researcher expectancy. If the people administering the treatment or rating the results are aware of the purpose or hypothesis of the study, this may have an effect on the results. For example, if participants are divided into high and low aptitude groups, and if the people administering the treatment are aware of which groups have high and low aptitudes, it may subtly influence how they treat the groups. Similarly, if they are aware of the hypotheses, they may, without intending to, influence the responses of the participants. In studies comparing different methods, the researchers themselves often teach the classes that are intended to show that one method is more effective than another, and they may influence the results. If coders are aware of the hypotheses, there may be an influence on the way that they code the results of the study. As with participant expectancy, these problems can be dealt with by having the people who code the results or administer the treatments blind to the hypotheses and to the group assignments.

**Measurement issues**. Another category is measurement issues. This includes issues related to the instruments used to measure the constructs in the study (tests, questionnaires, rating systems, interview protocols, etc.) and the ways they are administered. In the area of measurement issues, there are two components where there may be threats to the validity of the results of the research. The validity and reliability of the measurement instruments themselves may affect the validity of the conclusions drawn. (I will refer to the validity of the measurement instruments as measurement validity to distinguish it from the validity of the results of the study.) In addition, procedures for administering the measures may affect the results. These can all affect the validity of a study.

*Measurement validity* is the extent to which the instrument measures what it purports to measure. There are three types of measurement validity. *Face validity* is the extent to which an instrument "looks" like it measures what it is supposed to measure. This is the logical connection between the construct and the instrument that is intended to measure it.

The second type of measurement validity is *content validity*, which is the extent to which an instrument measures all the facets of the construct. This is a conceptual problem, not a statistical problem, and it depends to a great extent on how the construct is defined. If a measure that is purported to measure communicative ability in a second language only tests listening ability, it does not measure all facets of communicative ability.

The third type of measurement validity is *construct validity*. It is related to correlations between the variable in question and other variables. There are two types of construct validity. The first is convergent validity, which means that the variable is correlated with variables that it should be correlated with. The second is discriminant validity, which means that the variable is not correlated with constructs it should not be correlated with. For example, measures of lexical knowledge and reading proficiency might be expected to be correlated (convergent validity), but measures of reading proficiency and communication anxiety would not be correlated (discriminant validity).

Reliability, the second aspect of measurement, has two aspects. One is stability, that is, consistency over time. For a construct that has not changed, there should be a high correlation between a participant's scores at two points in time. One problem related to assessing the stability of a measure is separating true change from lack of stability. Stability is also evaluated by comparing the results of alternate forms of a measure.

A second aspect of reliability is equivalence, which is the extent to which all items reflect the same construct. For example, if a researcher is measuring the participants' desire to speak English, the two statements "I seek out native English speakers to talk to" and "Whenever possible, I carry on conversations with native English speakers" should have similar answers. If the participant agrees with one statement and disagrees with the other, the two items are not equivalent, and one of them may be measuring some construct other than desire to speak English. Cronbach's alpha is a statistic used to measure equivalence, and if the alpha values reported for the questions in a measurement instrument are low, the researcher should consider removing or revising one or more questions.

The practice effect is a third measurement issue. If more than one measurement instrument is used in a study, or if the same instrument is used more than once, the results of the instruments administered later may be affected. For example, if the same test is administered at the beginning and end of a study, having taken the test once already may help the participants to do better on it a second time. While the use of equivalent rather than identical measures helps to some degree, it does not eliminate the problem entirely, since taking the first measure may make participants aware of issues, grammar points, etc. Again, a control group which responds to the measures but does not receive the manipulation will help eliminate this problem. In addition, if more than one measure is used, it is wise to counterbalance the measures (administer one measure to half the participants first and have the other half take the other measure first). Statistical methods can be used to show whether there was a practice effect.

**Design issues**. Another category of threats to validity is design issues. This category includes research designs that lead to unintentionally different treatment of the groups and research designs that are inherently faulty because they do not eliminate alternative explanations.

The first category of design issues is uncontrolled differences in the treatment of the groups. For example, in a study of different language teaching methods, if different teachers are teaching classes using different methods, the possibility must be considered that differences found in improvement in participants' language proficiency may be due to differences in the teacher, not differences in the method. This problem should be avoided, if possible, by having all classes taught by one teacher or by having each teacher involved teach classes using two or more methods. Another type of problem in this category would be in a study in which participants meet outside of regular classes for instruction using a different method. If their improvement is then compared to the improvement of students in regular classes, there must be questions about the validity of the results. In addition to self-selection problems (comparing volunteers and non-volunteers), participants who meet outside of regular class time are receiving more hours of instruction than those who are only in regular classes. This difference may account for any differences in their improvement.

The second category in design issues is faulty research designs. The three designs discussed below are inherently flawed and do not allow any conclusions to be drawn about the sources of the variance (Hatch and Lazaraton, 1991).

One faulty design is called a one-group posttest-only design. In this design, only one group is used, and there is a manipulation (or series of manipulations) followed by a posttest. Based on the results of such a study, no claims can be made about the effect of the manipulation. Since nothing is known about the levels of the variables before the manipulation, it cannot even be claimed that they changed, much less that they changed in a particular direction or as a result of the manipulation.

A second faulty design is the one-group pretest/posttest design. In this design, again, only one group is used, and there is a pretest, a manipulation, and a posttest. In this case, the results of the pretest and the posttest can be compared, so it can be determined whether there were changes in the values of the variables. However, it is not possible to draw conclusions about the source of the changes. It may have been the treatment. It is also possible that there were history effects, maturation effects, or practice effects that explain any variance that was found.

The third type of faulty design is a two-group, no control design. In this type of study, there is an experimental group (which experiences the manipulation) and a nonequivalent control group, with a posttest. Therefore, it is impossible to know whether the response to the treatment is due to particular characteristics of the experimental group and whether the results can be generalized beyond that group.

## Parts of Research Papers

Quantitative research papers are usually divided into four major sections, the introduction/literature review, the methods, the results, and the discussion/conclusions. These sections may be labeled in various ways, or they may not be labeled at all, depending on the format of the journal, but they should all be in a paper. It is helpful, when reading a paper, to know what to look for in each section and how it fits in with the paper and the study as a whole.

## The Introduction/Literature Review

The introduction or literature review provides information about research and theory related to the research being reported in the paper. It also presents the specific problem that the study deals with. This gives the reader an idea of why the study is important and where it fits into work that has already been done. It also informs the reader about the theoretical background of the study and related work on the same topic. In some cases, the researcher may feel that a previous study was flawed. If so, he/she discusses the flaws and how they may have influenced the results of that study. This is usually done when the researcher feels that the approach he/she has taken corrects the flaws in the previous study and therefore should produce different, more accurate results.

Included in the literature review, usually near the end, are the hypotheses that are being tested in the study. Variables that do not have widely accepted definitions should be defined here, if they have not been defined already. The information in the literature review should provide arguments based on theory, results of previous studies, or logical arguments for the hypotheses that are being studied, or background for the research questions if the study is exploratory.

## Methods

In the methods section, the researcher describes what was done in the study. Ideally, the researcher should provide enough information for another researcher to replicate the study. However, due to space limitations, this may be difficult. The section includes information about who participated in the study, what materials, measures, etc., were used, what the participants were asked to do, and what analyses were performed on the data. The methods section is divided into several subsections, depending on what information is necessary.

**Overview/research design**. In the overview or research design subsection, the researcher briefly describes the method used. Included is information about what is being compared in the study, what materials or measures are used, and so on. This subsection gives the reader an overview of the study that makes the significance of the rest of the information in the methods section easier to understand.

**Subjects/participants**. In the subjects or participants subsection, information should be included about participants in the study, including who they were, how they were chosen, how many were involved (both the total number and the number assigned to each experimental condition), and under what circumstances they were studied. Any other information that is relevant to the study should also be included, such as age, sex, level in school, language proficiency (for non-native English speakers), and socio-economic status. A demographic characteristic that is a variable in the study should be described in detail. Information about whether any participants dropped out of the study and why they dropped out should also be included.

It is particularly important that the researcher explain how the subjects were chosen. Whether they were volunteers, part of an intact group, or chosen randomly from a larger group influences the extent to which the results can be generalized.

**Materials/measures/equipment**. In the materials or measures subsection, the researcher describes any materials that were used in the study, including stimulus materials and measurement instruments. (The materials themselves may be included in the appendix as well.) Questionnaires, interview protocols, rating scales, and so on, are described in detail, unless they are well known, in which case a source for the measure is usually cited. Information should also appear in this subsection on the reliability and validity of any measures.

If any special equipment is used for the study, the equipment and its function in the experiment should be described in the equipment subsection.

**Procedures**. In the procedures subsection, each step in the study is described. The researcher should specify what instructions were given to the participants, how groups were formed, and what the manipulations were. Control procedures such as randomization and blind coding should also be included.

**Analyses**. The statistical procedures that the researcher used are described in the analyses section.

**Importance of the methods section**. Readers should study information in the methods section carefully and consider the threats to internal and external validity. These threats may have an influence on the validity of the results that the researcher reports.

## Results

In the results section, the grouped data is summarized and the results of the analyses are reported. These may be in prose form or in the form of tables and figures. The detail should be sufficient to justify the conclusions drawn in regards to the acceptance or rejection of the hypotheses.

## Discussion/Conclusions

The final section of the paper itself is the discussion or conclusions. There is usually a summary of the results in non-technical terms. In this section, the reader should be able to find answers to the original questions raised in the introduction/literature review. The broader implications of the results may be discussed as well as further questions that may be raised by the results of the study.

In reading the discussion/conclusions section, a reader should be sure to consider whether the conclusions drawn by the researcher are actually supported by the results.

There may be a subsection on the limitations of the study in this section. In this section, the writer discusses problems with the study and how these would influence the interpretation of the results. The writer also discusses the limitations on the generalizability of the study. For example, if the second language speakers were college students, there might be limitations on the extent to which the results of the study apply to second language speakers who are not college students.

## Conclusion

In assessing threats to validity, it is necessary to recognize that not all threats can be avoided. There are, for example, practical limitations. Researchers may, from a practical point of view, need to choose between using volunteer groups and using intact groups. There may be no other alternative.

In addition, in designing a study to avoid one type of threat, the researcher may be unavoidably opening the study to another type. Finding a balance between internal validity and external validity is a particular problem. Avoiding threats to internal validity is likely to increase threats to external validity. Situations that provide the control necessary to avoid extraneous variance may not generalize well to other situations.

Also, there are advantages both to keeping a study short (for example, avoiding history and maturation effects) as well as to making it longer (avoiding the Hawthorne Effect and practice effects). Again, researchers need to try to find the best balance between these factors.

In all these cases, researchers should acknowledge threats to validity, control for them as much as possible, and discuss the influence they may have had on the outcome of the study.

This has just been a very brief overview of the principles of quantitative research design. However, it is important for anyone who reads quantitative research to understand these principles in order to be able to evaluate what they read and make judgments about the validity of the results of the research.

## List of References

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# 3. Transformational Generative Grammar and Language Teaching[1]

Kenji Kitao

## Abstract

English is widely taught in Japanese secondary schools and colleges. However, relatively few people actually understand English. The methods used to teach English do not seem to be effective. Drills are emphasized, and the grammar that textbooks are based on does not take into account the relationship between surface and deep structure.

In this paper, I have looked briefly at the history of language teaching and how techniques have been developed, particularly looking at structural linguistics, and how it contrasts with transformational generative grammar. I have also explained the techniques of language teaching used in Japan and how transformational generative grammar can be applied to these techniques to help students understand English grammar better and to be able to create novel grammatical sentences.

## The Background of English Teaching in Japan

Since Japan's establishment of diplomatic relations with western nations, English has been one of the major subjects in the secondary schools and universities from the time public education began. Reading English books in order to understand western countries has been important. Therefore, grammar and reading have been emphasized in English teaching.

Even though English was not taught during World War II, it is now taught in junior high schools, senior high schools and universities under the new educational system. English is studied by nearly every student in the junior high schools in the cities. As junior high school education is compulsory, almost all students in seventh, eighth and ninth grades study English. College graduates have studied English for at least eight years, through junior high school, senior high school and college. However because grammar, reading and writing had been emphasized from the beginning of English education, until a few years ago, relatively few people could speak English fluently and understand spoken English.

Many students want to learn English as a means of communication, because English is an international language. Many foreigners visit Japan, and many Japanese people have opportunities to go abroad. Since the early 1950's teachers have emphasized the audio-lingual method based on structural linguistics, which was introduced by Dr. Charles C. Fries at the University of Michigan. Teachers try to teach English as a means of communication in almost every junior high school where the design of all textbooks is based on the audio-lingual method.[2]

## The Present Situation of English Teaching in Japan

The audio-lingual method was adopted in junior high schools because teachers at that level emphasize conversation. Students listen to a tape and are given opportunities to speak English by repeating the words on the tape. Compared with previous methods of teaching English, this represented great progress, because many students can speak English now.

However, the audio-lingual method, as it is applied in Japan, does have drawbacks. Teachers emphasize the patterns, minimal pairs of words for pronunciation practice, word and sentence patterns. Contrast of patterns is used for explanation. They often have pattern practice in the classroom, but it does not seem to be effective.

There are typically about fifty students in the class, and teachers cannot check an individual student's pronunciation. There is not enough time for individual drills. The method is too mechanical and of little interest to students, who are old enough to think intellectually, and fail to see the reason for such drills. In addition, the Japanese language interferes with students' learning of English. Among their teachers, there are few native speakers of English, and few Japanese teachers are well enough trained to model English for their students. Other hindering factors include lack of good equipment and lack of sufficient time for students to understand and to practice.

Many students are not satisfied with this kind of English education. They go to private institutions to learn conversational English, which is often also taught through the audio-lingual method. There are countless such private institutions in the big cities. Although many people study English intensively, only a few can communicate effectively in English. They can use only fundamental sentence patterns that they have practiced over and over. Advanced students can speak more fluently, but the range of sentence patterns they can use is still limited. In addition, when they speak on unfamiliar topics, their English is grammatical but usually based on direct literal translations. They do not know how to make natural English sentences, so they use the sentence patterns they have learned, substituting words, or they use direct, literal translation.

Many Japanese students in the United States have to take special English courses before they take regular courses at a university, even if they have studied English for more than six years. For example, the writer has observed at the Intensive English Center of the University of Kansas and has found that many Japanese students, even after they have studied English for a couple of months there, have trouble in a composition class because they have to create original sentences.

The writer also had the opportunity to look over all authorized

English textbooks for Japanese junior high school students, and he found numerous problems with them. Some exercises required two or more transformational rules to change sentences. Other exercises dealt with sentences which have the same surface structures but different deep structures. There were examples of sentence transformations that transformational generative grammar could have explained more easily than conventional grammar. From the viewpoint of transformational generative grammar, the writer predicted that the students would have trouble doing such exercises, and he found the same types of problems at the Intensive English Center.

## The Purpose of This Paper

The audio-lingual method is popular in junior high schools in Japan, and spoken English is taught in the classroom. Students listen to a tape and repeat it and have pattern practice. In this way, some students can only say what they have memorized through repetition.

The audio-lingual method is not perfect. Some linguists and scholars insist that teachers should use transformational generative grammar in order to improve the audio-lingual method. However, teachers have not yet adopted theoretical and practical application of transformational generative grammar to textbooks and classrooms. As more and more linguists have begun to emphasize the application of transformational generative grammar to language teaching, it is useful to review the theoretical and practical aspects of previous practices in language teaching as a background to an explanation of transformational generative grammar, its application to language teaching, and its use as a basis for textbooks.

The purpose of this paper is to review the previous techniques of language teaching and to find ways to improve them with the application of transformational generative grammar, so students will have a higher achievement level in the use of English grammar and to enhance their ability to create novel grammatical sentences.

### Definition of Terms

*Transformational generative grammar* is an approach to grammar which explains how sentences are generated from a deep structure to a surface structure through transformational rules. It includes several grammars appearing after, and including, Chomsky's (1957) original conceptualization.

*The audio-lingual method* means the oral-aural method based on structural linguistics, which is a purely descriptive grammar developed by the Neo-Bloomfieldian School.

## History of Linguistics and Methods of Language Teaching

### Antiquity and the Middle Ages

It is said that language was first studied by the Greeks. Their study of language was philosophical and speculative. They studied not only language itself but also the concepts of mind and will which are behind language. They were seeking a universal grammar.

The Romans were the first people to study a foreign language, Greek. They were taught Greek by Greek tutors or slaves. As the Roman empire expanded its territory and power, Latin became an international language in Europe and was studied by many people not only in the Roman empire but in other countries as well. Roman grammarians made a Latin grammar which was designed to enable clerics to speak, read and write in their second language. Their approach was not philosophical and speculative, but practical and prescriptive.

Latin was the only language studied as a second/foreign language and was the medium of instruction in the schools until modern times. So the first concern with methodology in foreign language teaching was in the teaching of Latin.

After the invention of printing, many Latin books were printed in classical Latin. Classical Latin was different from spoken Latin by then, and Latin grammar was more complicated to read in those books. Thus, many people had complaints about poor Latin teaching because of the irrelevance of classical Latin.

**Eighteenth Century**

English scholars applied Latin grammar to English in order to develop an English grammar. There was a strong emphasis on prescription. Murray (1805) defined this approach by saying, "Grammar is the art of speaking and writing the English language with propriety" (p. 9). It was criticized harshly, because it was prescriptive and based on meaning. As the scholars just transferred Latin grammar to English, it was neither appropriate nor scientific. It was based on the idea of seeking the universality of language.

**Nineteenth Century**

The historical-comparative method of studying grammar was developed in the 19th century. The famous linguists of the time were Henry Sweet (1845-1912) and Otto Jespersen (1860-1942).

During this period, linguists developed the following principles:

1. Constant change is to be expected in all languages at every period of their history.
2. These changes show so much regularity that it is possible to grasp the relationships among languages and establish "families" of languages, based on scientific investigation.
3. The changes in languages cannot be the result of corruption arising out of the mistakes of ignorant and careless speakers. Regular usage by the speakers and writers of a language furnishes the only basis of correctness, as the *Oxford English Dictionary* has been conceived and produced.
4. The sound features of a language are its most stable features.
5. It is normal, rather than abnormal, for words to have multiple meanings.
6. All the "mysterious" qualities of the sounds and "accents" of language can be analyzed and described scientifically.

7. More rigorous controls are necessary in collecting the facts and in studying them.

Their work was cumulative and impersonal. They collected historical data, and analyzed and compared them. However, their work was limited to Indo-European languages which were derived from the same original language and thus are similar to one another.

This historical-comparative method was changed by Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913). His contribution to linguistics was the recognition of two aspects of language: *langue* and *parole*. *Langue* is characterized by a complete and homogeneous grammatical system observed and followed by a group or community in contrast to *parole* which consists in the use of a language by a given individual in a given case (Pei and Gaynor, 1969). He also recognized that the construction of language consists of contrasts, and he divided study of language into two aspects: synchronic and diachronic study (Wells, 1966).

Until the early twentieth century, the main method of language teaching was the grammar-translation method. The target languages were mainly dead languages. They were learned in order to understand ancient culture, so that only reading, including grammar, was emphasized, and production (speaking and writing) of those languages was ignored.

As a trend against the grammar-translation method, the natural method was introduced. It was based on the theory that people should learn a foreign language, as children do, by imitation and memorization. The natural method ignored literature and grammar and emphasized pronunciation. It prohibited the use of native languages.

As there were no systematic techniques in the natural method, the scientific method, which is systematic, was introduced to reform it. The scientific method emphasized visual aids and introduced phonetic symbols to teach pronunciation. It was based on linguistic analysis and supported by Henry Sweet and Otto Jespersen, who also emphasized the production of language.

## Structural Linguistics

Structural linguistics originated with the observation of American Indian languages. These languages were so different from Indo-European languages that the previous knowledge of linguistics did not apply. As Block (1966) stated, ". . . (L)anguages could differ from each other without limit and in unpredictable ways. . . ." Structural linguists denied the universality of language and paid attention to the specific characteristics of each language. Thus, they studied each language on an individual basis.

Sapir (1921) showed for the first time that there are patterns of sound systems in languages. He wrote:

> Two historically related languages or dialects may not have a sound in common, but their ideal sound-systems may have identical patterns (p. 53).
>
> I found that it was difficult or impossible to teach an Indian to make phonetic distinctions that did not correspond to "points in the pattern of his languages," however these differences might strike our objective ear, but that subtle, barely audible, phonetic differences, if only they hit the "points in the pattern," were easily and voluntarily expressed in writing (p. 55).

Sapir (1925) expressed his idea of the pattern of the sound system as follows.

> "A place" is intuitively found for a sound (which is here thought of as a true "point in the pattern," not a mere conditional variant) in such a system because of a general feeling of its phonetic relationship resulting from all the phonetic relationships (such as parallelism, contrast, combination, imperviousness to combination and so on) to all other sounds (p. 48).

He showed that the sounds of a language do not exist in isolation but are related to other sounds (contrast, combination and parallelism) and they occupy certain places in a pattern, and native speakers of that language know that pattern. He introduced the idea of patterns in language and paved the way for structural linguistics.

Leonard Bloomfield (1887-1949) tried to limit the objectives of linguistics only to things he could observe, and he avoided Sapir's mentalism. This approach is referred to a physicalism or mechanism. He thought that conversations (the sounds of a language) were everything in language. This was all he could observe, and he did not try to find the meaning behind language or to understand why only human beings can understand and speak languages, or to study children's acquisition of language. He separated language into four levels: phonemic, morphemic, syntactic, and semantic. He moved in sequence from one level to the next. His procedure was not based on meanings as traditional grammar was, but on forms or patterns he could observe. He continued to observe this principle, hence his studies were objective and strict.

Structural linguistics in the Neo-Bloomfield School[3] followed Bloomfield's ideas and expanded the investigation of language according to his procedure. The characteristics of their research were as follows:

1. There was strict separation of the four levels: phonemic, morphemic, syntactic, and semantic. Scholars did not move from one level to the next until they had finished the description of each level, so their description of phonemes was extensive and thorough, but their description of semantics was much less so.
2. "Text signals its own structure" (Joos, 1961, p. 17). Structural linguists considered only spoken language and ignored anything they could not directly observe. They avoided the concepts of mind or will.
3. In contrast to traditional grammar, which is item-centered, their grammar was structure-centered. They emphasized the chain based on structure, and choice based on system was the

subproduct in their grammar. In other words, the most important priority is understanding how each item is related to other items in the structure. The study of which items have the same function in a language and can be substituted in a structure is of secondary importance.

4. The procedures of structural linguistics were strict and scientific. They were not based on meaning, which linguists could not observe, but on form. As Bloomfield (1933) observed, "To accept definitions of meaning, which at best are makeshift, in place of an identification in formal terms, is to abandon scientific discourse" (p. 266). Procedures were quite specific and they were followed in order, step by step. It was not prescriptive but purely descriptive.
5. Structural linguists tried to find the minimal useful unit (phoneme) in the chain of sounds. They could not use anything they had not defined. They described each phoneme and after they finished every phoneme, they moved on to the morpheme and then word order. They tried to describe how to establish explicitly, objectively, and automatically phonemes, morphemes and word-order. That procedure was later called the "discovery procedure" by Chomsky (1957).
6. Distribution is the total of set of linguistic environments in which the elements of a language occurs. The elements have to contrast in the same environment to be distinguished from each other. There are two cases that do not contrast: one is when the two elements do not occur in the same environment (complementary distribution) and the other is when the two elements occur in the same environment but do not vary the meaning (free variation). The idea of distribution is one of the main concepts of structural linguistics, and it is important in discovery procedure.

Structural linguists understood language as a social product and as patterned human social behavior, so it followed that language was outside of human beings. Linguists observed spoken language and ignored the reasons why people can speak and understand language. They emphasized the patterns in language and asserted that children learn language through stimulus and response training. They claimed that with reinforcement by repetition, children can formalize habits and speak a language automatically. They can find the necessary patterns in their native language.

> The child in learning his native language not only develops great facility and accuracy in responding to the limited number of contrastive units that identify the word-patterns and the grammatical structure of his particular language; he also, in developing this great skill, learns to ignore all those physical features that are not relevant to the identification of these word- and sentence-patterns (Fries, 1966, p. 77).

What structural linguists did was to observe only *parole* and try to find both language and language habit, which they could not observe, through language behavior, which they could observe.

## The Audio-Lingual Method

Fries (1945) applied structural linguistics to language teaching and developed the audio-lingual method. Its purpose is to teach students to speak the target language automatically and in order to achieve this purpose, a variety of approaches are taken. The sounds of language are heavily emphasized, because structural linguists believed that vocal sounds are the basic material out of which a language is made. Fries (1945), through the audio-lingual method, again emphasized the basic idea of language as a social product and as patterned social behavior.

> This mastery of the sound system of our native language has (for all of us without noticeable speech defects) become entirely unconscious and, like the ability to walk, we cannot remember the learning process. The same thing is true concern-

> ing our mastery of the use of the devices which our language uses structurally — the fundamental matters of word-order and patterns of form (p. 2).

Fries thought that people learned vocabulary consciously, but that they learned the sound system and the structural devices unconsciously, like learning to walk. To explain this further, he adopted the concept of stimulus-response theory from behavioral psychology. According to stimulus-response theory, humans respond if they are given a stimulus, and if a particular response is reinforced with repetition, that particular response is habitualized.

Fries (1945) emphasized unconscious learning of language.

> It is first, the mastery of the sound system — to understand the stream of speech, to hear the distinctive sound features to approximate their production. It is second, the mastery of the features of arrangement that constitute the structure of the language (p. 3).

Patterns found at phonemic, morphemic and syntactic levels are important to his approach and are the minimal units of language, according to his understanding. He thought that teachers should not teach individual sounds, phrases or sentences, but that they should teach in patterns found in minimal pairs of sounds, phrases or sentences. In this sense, contrast is important in the audio-lingual method. In practice, students are given a pattern and repeat it over and over (reinforcement) and formalize a habit so that whenever they need that pattern, they can say it automatically. Reinforcement is the most emphasized feature in the audio-lingual method.

Fries (1945) also emphasized scientific material based on contrastive analysis between the native language and the target language of the learners.

> The most efficient materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of

the learner (p. 9).

In addition to being based on contrastive analysis, materials of the audio-lingual method are strictly organized from easy patterns to difficult patterns, and difficulty is predicted by contrastive analysis or by length of patterns. This analysis of contrasts is based on observation of forms, patterns and structures of spoken language. Fries compared the sound systems, word patterns, and sentence patterns of the target and the native language.[4] He also thought that contrastive features within English were important.

Some confusion has at times arisen out of the two separate sets of circumstances in which "contrasts" have been sought and used. As one of the ways of determining the strategic difficulties that Japanese speakers will have in learning English, parallel descriptive analyses were made of the two languages — English and Japanese. Then through a systematic comparing of these analyses, basic contrasting patterns of the two languages were sought and evaluated as a means of identifying the basic material that must be learned first. This type of contrast is quite different from the preliminary contrasts *between* the native language of the learner and the target language. This second use of contrast for effective teaching concerns contrast of form and arrangement *within* the language to be learned. Linguists accept the view that all the significant features of a language are matters of contrast within that language. Effective language teaching, therefore, must be based upon and use these contrasts. It is the contrastive features within English itself that are used in all the various kinds of dialogue of the corpus (Fries and Fries, 1961).

The main assumption of language and language learning by the audio-lingual method is clearly explained by Rivers (1966), based on Skinner's (1957) theory. "Language is 'behavior' and . . . behavior can be learned only by inducing students to 'behave' — in other words to perform in the language" (p. 15).

Rivers (1966) believed that language is a behavior, like all human behaviors, and students can learn language through repetition until they can speak it automatically. She makes the following assumption.

> Assumption 1. Foreign-language learning is basically a mechanical process of habit formation. . . . There is probably no general cure for the type of interference that comes from clinging to intellectual understanding in favor of automatic responses. The single paramount fact about language learning is that it concerns not problem-solving but the formation and performance of habits. In addition to intellectual effort, language requires the automatic performance of a series of complex motor skills. These can be acquired only by saturation practice. It is entirely possible to teach the major patterns of a foreign language without letting the students know what he is saying. . . Only after the student has gained complete and automatic control over the grammatical patterns would he be acquainted with precise meaning of what he has learned. Foreign-language habits are formed most effectively by giving the right response, not by making mistakes (p. 19-20).

There are five divisions in the audio-lingual method in the class: recognition, imitation, repetition, variation, and selection.

Recognition is usually done by oral introduction. Students are given a new sound pattern, word pattern or sentence pattern to understand. Imitation is mimicry and memorization. Students imitate the sound, intonation, stress, and juncture of models and memorize them. Repetition is the most important part. Students repeat after the models. They repeat the words clearly, loudly and rapidly, and they do as many exercises as they can. They reinforce their memorization with this repetition. Checking understanding is important here. Reading and writing are used to reinforce memorization, too.

Variation is an application of repetition known as pattern practice. Students are given the pattern of a sentence and instructed to change a part of it according to a cue. There should be only one change, and changes should be made step by step. There are three kinds of variation: substitution, conversion and expansion. Substitution is a drill in which one word is substituted. Conversion is a drill in which the position of words or meaning is changed. Expansion is a drill in which a sentence is expanded. Selection is a drill in which students are given a dialogue and they respond to the sentences given to them.

The following is an example of a model class employing the audio-lingual method:

A. Review
  Chorus reading
  Pattern practice
  Written test
B. Presentation of new material
  Oral introduction
  Mimicry and memorization
  Check of understanding
C. Reading of the day's text
  Reading
  Check of understanding
D. Consolidation

## Transformational Generative Grammar

### Theory of Transformational Generative Grammar

All human beings can understand and speak their native language, and all children acquire their native language within a few years after they are born. This realization led Chomsky (1957) to establish a new grammar called transformational generative grammar. According to Chomsky, "Grammar is a device of some sort for producing the sentences of the language under analysis" (Lyons, 1970, p. 43).

All human beings can understand and produce grammatical sentences in their native languages, both memorized sentences and original sentences. Thus, according to Chomsky, language is not a set of habits used by speakers, as structural linguists insisted, but that speakers have a set of rules in their minds which are behind the surface rules, and these deeper rules are used when engaging in language behavior. Therefore, language is a rule-governed behavior. Rules are simple, general and recurrent, and speakers of a language can create an unlimited number of new, grammatical sentences with a limited number of rules. They also understand an unlimited number of new grammatical sentences with those rules. Using those rules, they can also distinguish between grammatical and ungrammatical sentences. These phenomena are called the "creativity of language."

> The most striking aspect of linguistic competence is what we may call the "creativity of language," that is, the speaker's ability to produce new sentences, sentences that are immediately understood by other speakers although they bear no physical resemblance to sentences which are "familiar" (Chomsky, 1971, p. 6).

This internalized set of rules is called *competence*. Only human beings have it and they understand and speak a language according to their competence. This action (i.e., understanding and speaking) is called *performance*.

> A distinction must be made between what the speaker of a language knows implicitly (what we may call his *competence*) and what he does (his *performance*).
>
> The competence of the speaker-hearer can, ideally, be expressed as a system of rules that relate signals to semantic interpretations of these signals.
>
> Performance provides evidence for the investigation of competence. At the same time, a primary interest in competence entails no disregard for the facts of performance and the problem of explaining these facts. On the contrary, it is

> difficult to see how performance can be seriously studied except on the basis of an explicit theory of the competence that underlies it, and, in fact, contributions to the understanding of performance have largely been by-products of the study of grammars that represent competence (Chomsky, 1971, p. 70).

The idea of competence is similar to that of *langue*. Both are stored knowledge in human minds and control the use of language. However, langue is static and competence is dynamic.

Children do not have competence of their native language when they are born, but they have a hereditary "innate ability" with which to acquire language. That innate ability is possessed only by human beings. Children listen to the spoken language (data) around them and find the rules to create sentences. Data include correction of their language by adults and their own introspection. Children make use of trial and error, find rules, store up these rules in their minds, establish competence in their native language a few years after their birth, and speak and understand (perform) their native language with that competence.

FIGURE 1
LANGUAGE LEARNING AND LANGUAGE USE

1. Data → innate abilities → competence → performance

2. Data → acquisition model → competence model → performance

3. Data → general theory → grammar → performance

level 1 — language learning
level 2 — language use

The boxes represent human beings; innate abilities and competence are inside and performance is outside of them. Transformational generative grammarians established two models, the acquisition model and the competence model; the former is related to innate abilities and the latter to competence. They also developed a theory, and the general theory is related with the acquisition model and grammar with the competence model. The general theory applies to any language, but grammar is unique to each individual language. That is, transformational generative grammar deals with both the universality of language and with the specific characteristics of each language.

Another important feature of transformational generative grammar is the new idea that language has two structures: the "deep structure" and the "surface structure."

> Let us define the "deep structure of a sentence" as that aspect of the SD (syntactic description) that determines its semantic interpretation, and "the surface structure of a sentence" as that aspect of the SD that determines its phonetic form (Chomsky, 1971, p. 12).

Every sentence has a deep structure which contains the meaning of a sentence and a surface structure which gives the form of a sentence. The surface structure is generated from the deep structure through transformation.

> . . . one major function of the transformational rules is to convert an abstract deep structure that expresses the content of a sentence into a fairly concrete surface structure that indicates its form (Chomsky, 1965, p. 136).

## Examples

In this section, I will give examples which demonstrate the relationships between the deep and surface structures of sentences.

A sentence may have more than one meaning.

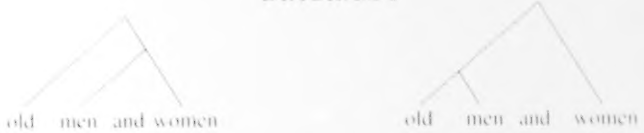
(1) Mary's house is by the bank.

Here the "bank" could be either the bank where money is deposited or the bank of the river. That is lexical ambiguity. Sometimes, however, ambiguity has to do with the grammatical structure of the sentence.

(2) Old men and women went on a picnic.

Here native speakers of English understand either "old men and old women" or "old men and women of any age," as the diagrams that follow indicate:

DIAGRAM I

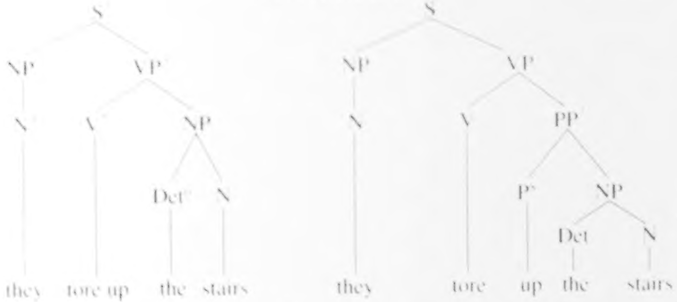

old
men
and
women
old
men
and
women

This is the ambiguity of modification and structural linguistics can solve it.

(3) They tore up the stairs.

It has two meanings: they destroyed the stairs and they hurried up the stairs.

DIAGRAM II


S
NP
VP
N
V
NP
Det
N
they
tore up
the
stairs
S
NP
VP
N
V
PP
P
NP
Det
N
they
tore
up
the
stairs

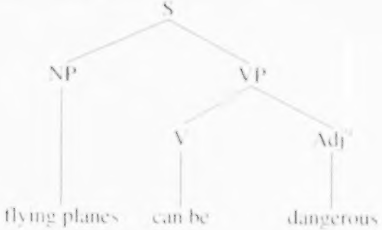
[1] S means the "sentence."  [2] NP is the "noun phrase."
[3] VP is the "verb phrase."  [4] N is the "noun."
[5] V is the "verb."  [6] Det is the "determiner."
[7] PP is the "prepositional phrase."  [8] P is the "preposition."

We can show the differences of meanings with the phrase markers shown below:

(4) Flying planes can be dangerous.

There is only one phrase marker shown below:

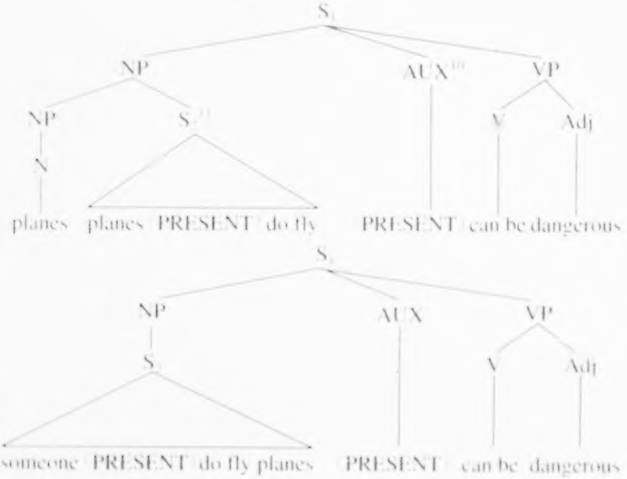
DIAGRAM III


S
NP
VP
V
Adj[9]
flying planes
can be
dangerous

[9] Adj is "adjective."

However, native speakers of English understand the two meanings of this sentence; planes which are flying can be dangerous and it is dangerous for someone to fly planes. These two meanings are shown in the deep structure trees below:

DIAGRAM IV


S1
NP
AUX[10]
VP
NP
S2[11]
V
Adj
N
planes
planes PRESENT do fly
PRESENT
can be dangerous
S1
NP
AUX
VP
S2
V
Adj
someone PRESENT do fly planes
PRESENT
can be
dangerous

[10] AUX means "auxiliary."

[11] S or S1 means the main sentence and $S_2$ ($S_3$, $S_4$,...) means embedded sentences in S.

Native speakers, whether they are conscious of it or not, know there are two deep structures from which the original sentence is generated. The surface structure does not show these two meanings clearly.

Ambiguous sentences sometimes have more than two meanings.

(5) Students were told to stop talking in the classroom.

This sentence has six meanings as follows:

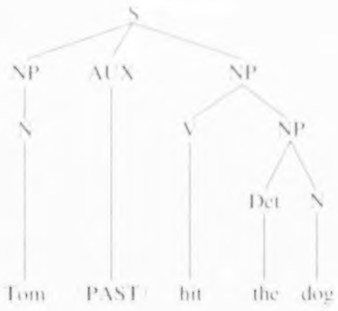
1. The students were talking in the classroom and were asked to desist.
2. The students were talking and were asked, in the classroom, to desist.
3. The students were talking and were asked to desist in the classroom (although they could talk elsewhere.)
4. People were talking in the classroom and the students were asked to stop them.
5. People were talking and the students were asked, in the classroom, to stop them.
6. People were talking and the students were asked to stop them from doing this in the classroom (although they could do it elsewhere.)

On the other hand, two sentences sometimes have the same meaning.

(6) a Tom hit the dog.
b The dog was hit by Tom.

The deep structure of these two sentences is as follows:

DIAGRAM V



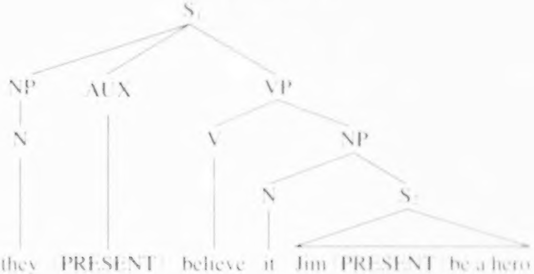
Sentence (6)b is generated from this deep structure with passive transformations.

Another example of sentences of similar meaning originating from one deep structure is as follows:

(7) a They believe that Jim is a hero.
b They believe Jim to be a hero.
c Jim is believed to be a hero.
d It is believed that Jim is a hero.

The deep structure of those sentences is as follows:

DIAGRAM VI



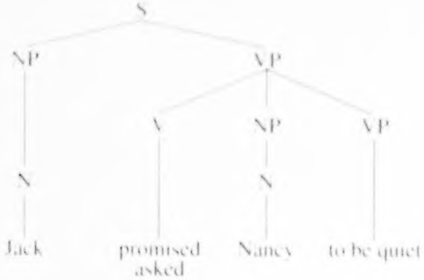
In the case of ambiguous sentences, a few deep structures generate only one surface structure with different sets of transformational rules; in the case of synonymous sentences, one deep structure generates a few surface structures through different sets of transformational rules.

Here are two sentences which have the same surface structure.

(8) a Jack promised Nancy to be quiet.
b Jack asked Nancy to be quiet.

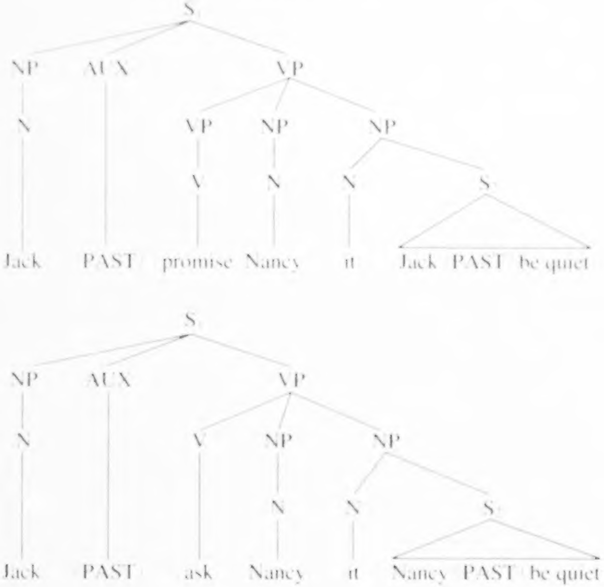
Their phrase marker is as follows:

DIAGRAM VII


S
NP
VP
V
NP
VP
N
N
Jack
promised
asked
Nancy
to be quiet

All native speakers of English know that the subject of "to be quiet" in sentence (8)a is Jack and that of sentence (8)b is Nancy. They know that those two sentences have the different deep structures shown below.

DIAGRAM VIII


(8) a

(8) b
S
NP
AUX
VP
N
VP
NP
NP
V
N
N
S
Jack
PAST
promise
Nancy
it
Jack PAST be quiet
S
NP
AUX
VP
N
V
NP
NP
N
N
S
Jack
PAST
ask
Nancy
it
Nancy PAST be quiet

The following two sentences, which have the same surface structure have completely different deep structures.

(9) a I wanted the doctor to examine Mary.
b I persuaded the doctor to examine Mary.

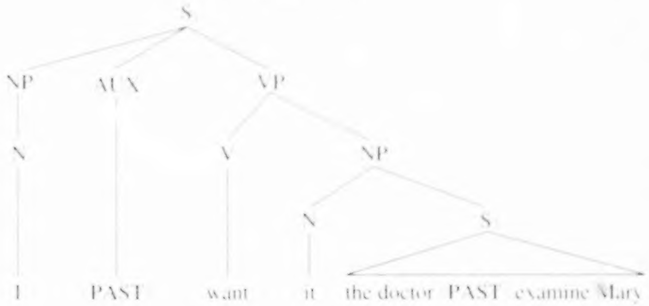
If the embedded sentences of these two sentences are changed into passive voice, sentence (9)b changes its meaning.

(10) a I wanted Mary to be examined by the doctor.
b I persuaded Mary to be examined by the doctor.

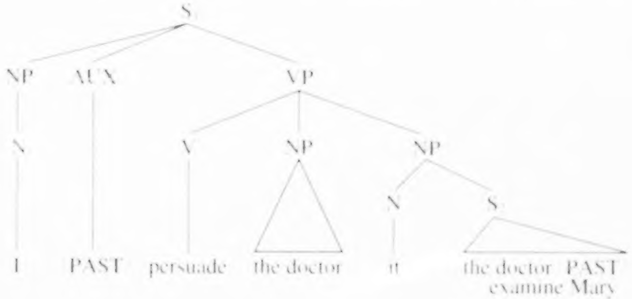
They have different deep structures as follows:

DIAGRAM IX

(9) a


S
NP
AUX
VP
N
V
NP
N
S
I
PAST
want
it
the doctor PAST examine Mary

(9) b


S
NP
AUX
VP
N
V
NP
NP
N
S
I
PAST
persuade
the doctor
it
the doctor PAST
examine Mary

These diagrams show that the verb "want" takes an event as an object, and the verb "persuade" takes a person as an object.

Transformational generative grammar shows the rules more systematically and explicitly with the concept of the deep structure.

(11) a He is Jack.
b Is he Jack?
(12) a Jack likes Mary.
b Does Jack like Mary?

Structural linguists deal with sentences (11) and (12) separately but transformational generative grammarians can deal with them together.

The deep structure of sentence (11)a is as follows:

(13) a NP + (PRESENT) + be + NP
(He is Jack.)

Sentence (11)b is generated from (13)a and NP of the subject and (TENSE) + be are exchanged with each other.

(13) b (PRESENT) + be + NP + NP?
( Is he Jack?)

The deep structure of sentence (12)a is as follows:

(14) a NP + (PRESENT) + do + V + NP
(Jack likes Mary.)

Sentence (12)b is generated from (14)a with NP of the subject and (TENSE) + do is exchanged with each other.

(14) b (PRESENT) + do + NP + V + NP
(Does Jack like Mary?)

The basic rule is the same as exchanging the positions of the subject and tense marker.

The case of negative sentences is likewise.

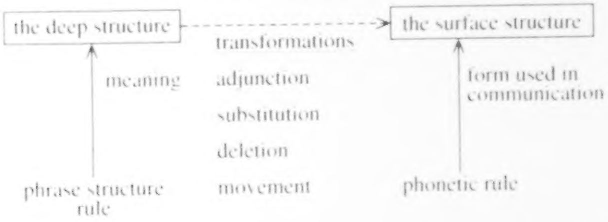
(11) c He is not Jack.
(12) c Jack does not like Mary.

The deep structures of those sentences are sentences (13)a and (14) a respectively, and they generate the following structures when "not" is inserted after the tense marker.

(13) c NP + (PRESENT) + be + not + NP
(He is not Jack.)
(14) c NP + (PRESENT) + do + not + V + NP
(Jack does not like Mary.)

Based on the previous explanations, it is obvious that language has a deep structure and a surface structure. The deep structure conveys the meaning of the sentence and forms the basis for the generation of the surface structure, which is the form of the sentence with transformations applied. There are four kinds of transformations: adjunction, substitution, deletion, and movement.

FIGURE II
STRUCTURE OF LANGUAGE

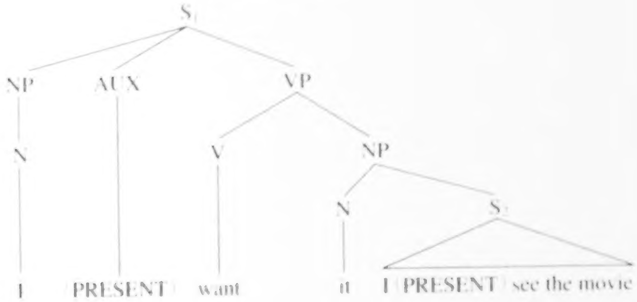

the deep structure
the surface structure
transformations
meaning
adjunction
substitution
deletion
movement
form used in communication
phrase structure rule
phonetic rule

Transformational generative grammar also leads to a new way of categorizing sentences: simplex and complex. A simplex sentence has one sentence in the deep structure, and a complex sentence has more than one. Sometimes the complex sentence looks like a simplex sentence because another sentence is embedded in it. The following sentences, for example, are complex sentences.

(15) I want to see the movie.

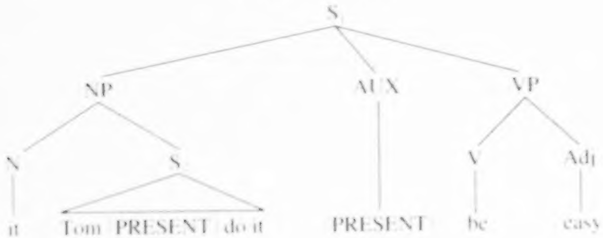
The deep structure of this sentence is shown below:

DIAGRAM X


S1
NP
AUX
VP
N
V
NP
N
S2
I
(PRESENT)
want
it
I (PRESENT) see the movie

(16) It is easy for Tom to do it.

DIAGRAM XI



(Would you help me?)

(17) I'm glad to.

Sentence (17) lacks "help you" because these words are not necessary information in the surface structure.

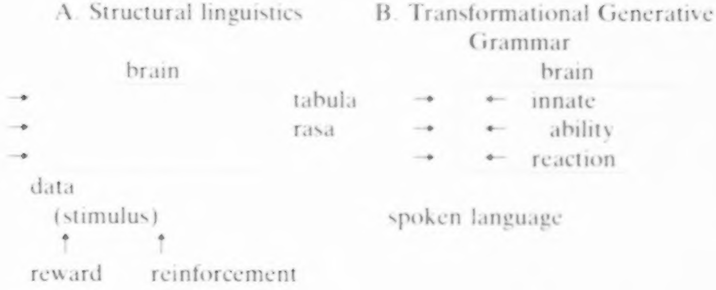
Hearers analyze complex sentences into simplex sentences in order to understand them and speakers express themselves constructing complex sentences with simplex sentences, so that they can express more complicated meaning.

**Theory of Language Acquisition**

To explain the general theory of language, transformational generative grammarians believe it is important to know how children acquire language, in contrast to structural linguists, who did not emphasize the process of language acquisition.

Structural linguists thought that language was a set of habits, and that humans learn language through a process of stimulus and response. Children hear adults' (usually parents') spoken language, repeat it, have it reinforced, and automatize it. Structural linguists studied the process of language acquisition only by observing the performance of children, that is, the outer behavior, not the internal process. Thus the burden of language acquisition was placed on the environment.

FIGURE III
LANGUAGE ACQUISITION


A. Structural linguistics
B. Transformational Generative Grammar
brain
tabula
rasa
data
(stimulus)
reward
reinforcement
brain
innate
ability
reaction
spoken language

However, a weakness in the theory of structural linguistics is that children do not imitate exactly the spoken language they hear. A direct test of children's ability to imitate adult forms of speech shows that children almost never repeat adult sentences (Jakobovits, 1970). For example:

| Model sentence | Child's repetition |
|---|---|
| Johnny is a good boy. | Johnny is good boy. |
| He takes them for a walk. | He take them to the walk. |
| Lassie does not like the water. | He no like the water. |
| Does Johnny want a cat? | Johnny wants a cat? |

They create new sentences using adults' spoken language instead of just imitating sentences, so the burden of language acquisition is now placed on the child, and the environment is less important (FIGURE III B).

There are three processes in children's imitation of adults' language:

1. Imitation with reduction
2. Imitation with expansion
3. Induction of the latent structure

There are the following tendencies in children's imitation of adults' language:

1. They preserve the word order.
2. They limit the length of sentences.
3. They omit words selectively; they tend not to omit contentives (nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs), but they do tend to omit functors (auxiliaries, articles, prepositions, conjunctions, and inflections).

The following tables indicate this trend clearly (Brown and Fraser, 1963):

TABLE I
SUMMARY OF RESULTS WITH SENTENCE IMITATION

A MEAN LENGTH, IN MORPHEMES, OF THE MODEL SENTENCES AND THE IMITATION OF EACH CHILD

| speaker | Eve | Adam | Helen | Ian | Jimmy | June | model sentence |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| age in months | 25.5 | 28.5 | 30 | 31.5 | 32 | 35.5 | |
| | 2.2 | 3.1 | 3.7 | 3.5 | 5.0 | 4.9 | 5.2 |

TABLE II
PERCENTAGES OF CORRECTLY IMITATED MORPHEMES IN VARIOUS SYNTACTIC CLASSES

| Classes having few members in English | | Classes having many members in English | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Inflections | 44% | Nouns | 100% |
| Pronouns | 72% | Adjectives | 92% |
| Articles | 39% | Main verbs | 85% |
| Modal auxiliaries | 56% | | |
| Copular verbs (to be) | 33% | | |

Table I shows that the children's imitations become longer as the children become older.

Table II shows the percentage of contentives and functors in the children's imitations. It is obvious that there is a tendency for children to omit functors but not contentives.

Ervin (1964) observed the imitations of five children and came to the same conclusion.

> There were few cases of repetitions with changes in order. Omissions bulked large in our cases of imitation. These tended to be concentrated on the unstressed segments of sentences, on articles, prepositions, auxiliaries, pronouns, and suffixes. . . .Thus imitations had three characteristics: they selected most recent and most emphasized words, and they preserved the word order (p. 169).

Children have the innate ability to find rules for generating an unlimited number of new sentences, using adults' spoken language. They make systematic mistakes like "goed" or "comed," which they have never heard, thus demonstrating a rule-based grammar. They amass those rules and gradually fine tune them. By the time they are three years old, they know the basic rules of their native language, i.e., they have linguistic competence. As Brown and Fraser (1963) stated, "Some preliminary work showed us that by three years many children had about as complex a grammar as we were able to describe" (p. 166). Their rapid mastery of the rules of their native language within only three years indicates that the rules are limited, simple, general, and recurrent.

The rule for forming a question is simple, as the writer has already shown. The rule is also general. It can be used for "be" verbs, "do," modals, and "have." The rule is recurrent.

(15) a Mary likes to eat apples very much.

(15) b Mary eats apples.

(15) c Mary likes it very much.

So the first sentence uses the rule to make a sentence twice. It is possible to use it again and again and embed those sentences in a sentence.

## Theory of Foreign Language Learning

English learning by Japanese junior high school students is obviously different from that by native speakers of English. There are two main areas of difference; one is the learners themselves and the other is between the learning of one's native language and a foreign language.

There are three major factors that differentiate the Japanese learner of English from a native learner of English.

1. Japanese junior high school students are twelve, thirteen, fourteen and fifteen years old. They are nearly adults emotionally and intellectually.
2. Their cognitive development is on an advanced level and they can think logically using the Japanese language. Also there is the tendency for them to prefer reading and writing to listening and speaking in English classes.
3. They have experienced life and the educational system, and they can use their previous experiences to understand new ones. They also need a large vocabulary and a wide variety of sentence patterns to express all of their experiences. In addition, they have the ability to express abstract concepts.

There are three major differences between foreign language learning for Japanese students and native language learning.

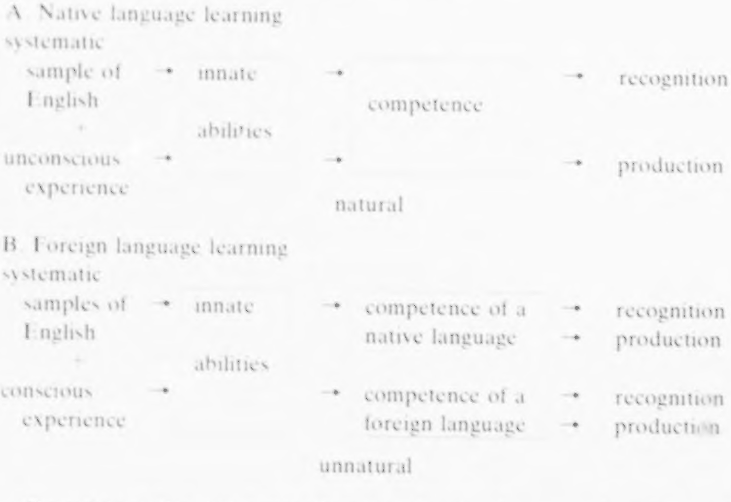
1. Students have already mastered a native language, and this is both an advantage and a disadvantage. Their knowledge of Japanese may interfere with English learning. They use the model of Japanese grammar for English learning, and they think in Japanese. However, sometimes the knowledge of language and sociolinguistic strategies is helpful in learning a new language, if only for purposes of contrast.
2. Japanese students learning English do not have as much time as native speakers do to master English. They study English in class only three to five hours a week, and they have little other exposure to English. They have many other things to do, and

they cannot devote themselves to English language learning, as children do in their native language. They do not have enough time for trial and error.

3. Japanese students learn English in a situation where there are large classes, few native English speaking teachers, and the Japanese teachers that they have may not speak English well. In such situations, students are not given good data as a basis for acquiring English, and teachers cannot give much individual attention to students.

Figure IV shows the differences between native-language learning and foreign-language learning, based on transformational generative grammar.

FIGURE IV
NATIVE LANGUAGE LEARNING AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

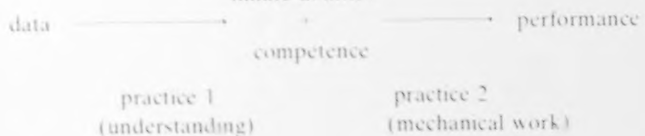

A. Native language learning
systematic sample of English
+
unconscious experience
innate abilities
competence
natural
recognition
production
B. Foreign language learning
systematic samples of English
+
conscious experience
innate abilities
competence of a native language
competence of a foreign language
recognition
production
recognition
production
unnatural

Considering the differences between foreign language learning and native language learning, and the differences in learners, foreign language teaching should be different from native language teaching.

First of all, foreign language teaching should be systematic and conscious, because students do not have enough time for trial and error. Second, since the students have the competence (universal + a) of their native language, teachers should avoid "a" and input "b" to let them have the competence of English (universal + b). Third, students must have systematic scientific materials whose contents are well organized to promote competence and are based on contrastive analysis between English and Japanese. Students should concentrate their effort on the "b" part of the competence. Fourth, they have to listen to tapes carefully to get natural data. Fifth, they have to intellectually understand what they are doing and understand the meanings of sentences; they can do this using many approaches, including grammar and use of students' native language. Mechanical work alone is not effective. They have to understand first and, if necessary, they should use the native language to understand. It is effective for them to use their conscious intelligence to understand, and teachers can help them discover rules. They should also use written material to help them to understand.

There are two types of practice in foreign language learning, as Figure V shows.

FIGURE V
PRACTICE



Practice 1 is concerned with competence, and practice 2 is concerned with performance. Textbooks, audio-visual aids, and explanations promote competence and help students to understand and discover rules (practice 1). Students come to understand grammar and can perform based on that competence. After that, they learn how to perform smoothly (practice 2), for example, using pattern practice or combination practice.

As there are many students in the class and relatively little time, teachers should emphasize practice 1 in the classroom and practice 2 should be done at home or in the language laboratory. In the classroom, teachers should just check students' progress.

Transformational generative grammar is mainly associated with practice 1. It helps students to understand English sentences and in particular shows the relationships among English sentences, as the writer has already shown.

It is efficient to use transformational generative grammar to show explicitly how sentences are generated. Students can systematically learn each sentence pattern and its relationship with other sentences. Using this approach, students come to understand the structures of sentences well and the relationships among the elements of a sentence (agreement).

Students should be active in the classroom and should be helped to discover rules of grammar. They should be allowed to make significant systematic mistakes, producing semi-grammatical sentences. Teachers using the audio-lingual method discourage students from making any kinds of mistakes, but the writer believes that the significant systematic mistakes lead to progress in language learning.

Jakobovits (1970) suggests appropriate types of classroom activities from the viewpoint of transformational generative grammar.

> It suggests that the learner should be exposed to the full range of linguistic data right from the beginning so as to give him maximum opportunity to test out his inferences about the underlying structure of the languages.
>
> He should be encouraged to produce any sentence, even if "incorrect," to enable him to practice phonological surface transformations of base strings; "correction" of such semisentences by the teacher is helpful only when they represent "explanation," as discussed in this chapter in connection with

first language acquisition.

Drills and exercises are of dubious utility unless they represent attempts to communicate freely (as opposed to practicing a grammatical rule artificially) (pp. 25-26).

### Structural Linguistics and Transformational Generative Grammar

Structural linguistics is based on the observation of each language from outside. It describes language from the phonemic level to the semantic level and avoids anything linguists cannot observe (mechanism). In contrast, transformational generative grammar tries to explain how humans understand and speak a language. It also describes the grammar of each language explicitly. It explains competence, that is, how speakers can generate grammatical sentences. It tries to explain the mental process of generating language, which linguists cannot observe (mentalism). Thus it is abstract, and therefore explains many issues which structural linguistics does not and cannot explain.

In structural linguistics, language is as behavioral as walking. Human beings imitate, repeat and memorize it, and whenever they need it, they can use it automatically. However, according to transformational generative grammar, language is cognitive and is rule-governed behavior. Humans understand and speak a language according to these rules. Thus, transformational generative grammar emphasizes how the human mind works with regard to language.

Structural linguistics emphasizes language learning with stimulus and response theory. It is a process of imitation, repetition (reinforcement) and memorization. Formation of habits is the goal of language learning. Reinforcement is the most important of the three, making practice 2 essential. In contrast, transformational generative grammar emphasizes the productive aspect of human beings (creativity) and language as a rule-governed behavior. So the discovery of rules and the understanding of them are important. In trying to promote competence, practice 1 is emphasized more. In other words, structural linguistics is concerned only with performance and emphasizes practice 2. Transformational generative grammar is concerned with both competence and performance, and competence (practice 1) is emphasized more.

In structural linguistics, conversation is everything. Therefore, structural linguists deal only with the surface structure of language. In contrast, transformational generative grammarians have the hypothesis that language has a deep structure and a surface structure, and the latter is generated from the former with transformations. Using this theory, transformational generative grammar can explain phenomena which structural linguistics cannot.

Structural linguists have a passive attitude toward language. Language is just an object and human beings themselves are not so important in language use. However, transformational generative grammarians have an active attitude. Humans have an innate ability to acquire language and promote competence, and they create language with that competence. Transformational generative grammarians emphasize the active learning of a language instead of the passive learning, which is the consequence of structural linguistics.

## Criticism of the Audio-Lingual Method

After teachers adopted the audio-lingual method in Japan, they improved English teaching considerably. First of all, they emphasized sounds, so that students could pronounce English well and could read English books aloud with correct English pronunciation. Second, as teachers emphasized conversation, some people could carry on an easy conversation in English. However that was and is not good enough, as the writer has maintained.

There are some faults in the theory and the practice of the audio-lingual method, and it is not entirely suitable for Japanese junior high schools as well.

First of all, language learning is not only imitation and repetition.

Children do not repeat adults' spoken language but they create language with rules they have discovered. These rules allow adults to understand and speak unlimited new grammatical sentences. Therefore, language is governed with limited rules, and these rules reside in the minds of language users.

Ervin (1964) conducted an experiment involving free sentences and imitated sentences with three criteria: length, grammatical markers and structural completeness. The results are shown in Table III.

TABLE III
IMITATION AND FREE UTTERANCE

| | length | grammatical markers | structurally complete |
|---|---|---|---|
| free sentences | 3 words | 62% | 1/2 |
| imitated sentences | 2 words | 28% | 1/3 |

This table shows that imitation is not the best way of language learning, and Ervin (1964) expresses the following doubts concerning overt imitation:

> I have not said that imitation is never important in language learning. In comprehension overt imitation may be important. . . . All I have said is that there is not a shred of evidence supporting a view that progress toward adult norms of grammar arises merely from practice in overt imitation of adult sentences (p. 172).
>
> Clearly, we have evidence that children are creative at the very beginning of sentence formation. They imitate a great deal, but they also produce sentences which have both regularity and systematic difference from adult patterns (p. 181).

In the audio-lingual method, only the correct response is accepted. However, in the class employing transformational generative grammar, if students make semigrammatical sentences and make systematic mistakes, it is part of the process of discovery of rules and so reflects progress, and they are encouraged to do it.

In the audio-lingual method, the deep structure is not considered. Therefore, two sentences which have the same surface structure but different deep structures would be dealt with together.

(18) a The door is open.
b The door is closed.

(19) a John persuaded the doctor to examine Mary.
b John expected the doctor to examine Mary.

(20) a I want to go.
b I want you to go.

The surface structure does not show all the information.

(21) You may come with me, if you want to.

Conversely, related sentences are dealt with separately and relationships among such sentences are ignored.

(22) a They believe that John is kind.
b John is believed to be kind.
c It is believed that John is kind.

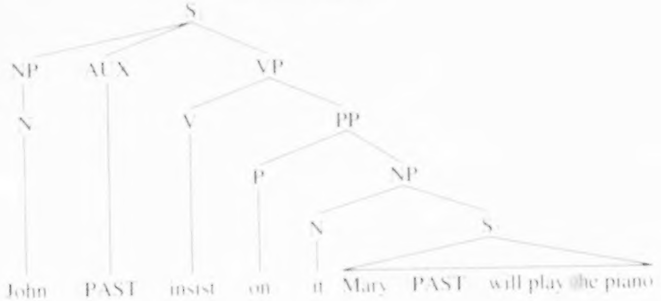
Transformational generative grammar shows how affirmative sentences, questions, and negative sentences are related, and passive and active voices are related to one another, as previously illustrated.

Some grammatical features cannot be explained without the concept of the deep structures. For example:

(23) a John insisted that Mary would play the piano.
b That Mary would play the piano was insisted on by John.

Nobody can explain why "on" appears in the passive voice. It is clear, if we consider the deep structure, as the following diagram shows.

DIAGRAM XII



Drills should be arranged from easier to more difficult structures, and from shorter sentences to longer sentences. The reason for the difficulty lies not in sentence length but in how complicated the deep structure is, and is the generation of the surface structure from the deep structure with transformations. The more transformational rules required to generate the surface structure from the deep structure, the more difficult it is to generate sentences.

There is sometimes more than one transformation in drills. This can be difficult for students, and they should be shown step by step, so that they can discover the rules by themselves. After students understand the rules well, they can transform sentences with a couple of transformations.

Teachers of the audio-lingual method emphasize scientific materials based on contrastive analysis, but contrastive analysis is only concerned with the surface structures. A teaching method also needs to deal with deep structures and transformational rules.

As teachers using the audio-lingual method emphasize performance exercises (practice 2), there is a tendency to ignore exercises that promote competence (practice 1). Competence is essential in language use, and performance without competence does not make sense.

Rivers (1966) shows that two levels of practice are necessary in the teaching of a foreign language.

> In view of all these facts, it seems difficult to maintain a belief in one level of language behavior of a mechanical character. Yet if the idea of two levels is accepted, provision must be made in the teaching of a foreign language for training of both levels. "A mechanical process of habit formation" can apply only to the lower level of manipulative drill, important as this is (p. 46-47).

Rivers introduces Katona's experiments of language learning by "direct practice" and by "method of understanding." Results showed that the material was better retained for longer periods when learned with understanding and that new problems were solved with much greater facility.

Rivers also shows that learning a language by the method of understanding is better, because learners correct their errors by themselves. "It would seem essential for the foreign-language teacher to make the student aware of what he is doing and train him in the discrimination of his own errors" (p. 50).

Exercises (practice 2) are strongly emphasized in the audio-lingual method, but there are so many students in the class (between forty and fifty) that there is not time for everyone to practice. In addition, teachers are not well enough trained, and there are too few native English speaking teachers. For language teaching to be really effective, cognitive learning and practice 1 should be emphasized more.

Mechanical work is boring for junior high school students. They want to do activities which challenge them intellectually. Students are passive in the audio-lingual method class, and they need a more active way of learning. They need to have more practice in creative aspects of language. In order to do that, they have to find rules, understand them, and use them in performance. They should use all approaches to gain competence, including the use of Japanese language or letters.

As the writer has shown, there are many faults in the audio-lingual method, and it does not seem well suited to Japanese junior high school English classes. This does not deny the value of everything in the audio-lingual method, but there are some features which should be improved; transformational generative grammar can improve some features, and it is appropriate for use in Japanese junior high school English classes well.

## Applying Transformational Generative Grammar to Language Teaching

The writer has already shown that there are some faults in structural linguistics and in the audio-lingual method which is based on it. Those faults are exposed by transformational generative grammar. It is clear that if language teachers adopt the methodology based on transformational generative grammar, they can improve English teaching in Japan.

There are many ways to apply transformational generative grammar in language teaching, and the writer would like to introduce particularly significant ways used in Japanese junior high school English teaching.

**Practice 1**

Transformational generative grammar can be used in the English classroom even if the textbooks used are based on the audio-lingual method. Teachers help can students to discover the rules and understand them in order to promote their competence in English.

The most effective concept in transformational generative grammar is that of the deep structure and the surface structure in English sentences. Teachers have to show students how the surface structures are generated from the deep structures, and through what transformations. If more than one transformational rule is used, teachers should show each transformation and the intermediate sentences explicitly. For example:

(1) a Tom wanted a car.

The deep structure is:

(1) b *Tom (PAST) do want a car.

c *Tom (did) want what?

d *What Tom did want?

e What did Tom want?

Teachers can show how a new sentence pattern is related to previous sentence patterns. Also they can show the relationships among sentence patterns.

Sentences should be introduced from simplex to complex and among complex sentences, from those with less transformations to those with more. If the textbook does not use this order, teachers have to add some sentences or rearrange the order. When the new complex sentence is introduced, teachers have to show the simplex sentences which make up the complex sentence.

When students have a transformation drill, they should do it first with one transformation at a time. After students thoroughly understand each transformational rule, they can transform a sentence by combining some transformations.

Teachers should show that English words are divided into four classes. Class 1 is the subject, class 2 is the verb and the auxiliary, class 3 is the object and the complement, and class 4 is the adverb. Among these classes of words are the following rules:

1. In general, the order of English sentences is class 1, 2, 3, and 4.
2. There may be many class 4 words in a sentence, and they can appear in many orders, such as 4, 1, 3, and 4, or 1, 4, 2, 3, and 4.
3. Class 2 words have two kinds of verbs: "be" verbs and ordinal

verbs.

4. After the "be" verb comes the class 3 or 4 words.
5. There may be a combination of class 2 words in a sentence. If there is more than one, then a modal, "have," "be," or "do" appear, in that order. If one of the first three is in the deep structure, the fourth, "do," disappears. If "not" is added to the first auxiliary, a negative sentence is generated, and if it comes in front of the subject a question is generated.

Teachers can show the deep structures of the complicated sentences on the blackboard and students can understand how simplex sentences are embedded. Teachers can explain the processes of generating surface structures.

For example:

(2) a The boy who is playing baseball is my brother.
b the boy/ is/ my brother
1 2 3
who / is playing / baseball/
1 2 3
(*the boy*)

(3) a The boy whom I like can speak English well.
b the boy/ can speak/ English/ well
1 2 3 4
whom/ I/ like/
3 1 2
I like *the boy*.

After students learn to write simple sentences, teachers can show them how to embed sentences into the main sentence and then students can write longer, more complicated sentences.

Teachers have to show what happens through transformations: what is added, what is substituted, what is deleted, and what is moved.

When the teachers show an ambiguous sentence, they can show the different deep structures and different sets of transformations.

When they show the synonymous sentences, they can show the same deep structure and the different sets of transformations. In general, teachers can show the relationships among sentences; they can show how one sentence is generated from others or which deep structures those sentences are generated from. Students can understand the relationships among sentences and they can transform from one to the other.

Teachers cannot deal with two sentences with the same surface structures and different deep structures as having the same sentence patterns. That may confuse students.

For example:

(3) a John is easy to please.
b John is eager to please.
(4) a I asked Mary to be quiet.
b I promised Mary to be quiet.

Transformational generative grammar is effective for teaching verb tenses. For example:

Present Progressive Form

(5) Mary opens the window.
opens: present, singular, the third person
(PRESENT) open
progressive form be + ing
(PRESENT) + open
be + ing
(PRESENT) + be + ing + open
↓ ↓
am, is, are opening
(6) Mary is opening the window.

This procedure looks complicated, but it is logical and effective for teaching adult elementary students to generate not only progressive forms but also perfect forms and modals as shown below:

Past Progressive Form

(5) Mary opened the window.

opened: past
(PAST) open
progressive form be + ___ ing
(PAST) + open
be + ___ ing
(PAST) × be + ___ ing × open
↓ ↓
was, were opening

(7) Mary was opening the window.

Present Perfect Form

(5) Mary opens the window.

opens: present, singular, the third person
(PRESENT) + open
have + ___ en
perfect form have + ___ en
(PRESENT) × have + ___ en × open
↓ ↓
have, has opened

(8) Mary has opened the window

Modal

(5) Mary opens the window.

opens: present
(PRESENT) + open
can
(PRESENT) × can + open
↓ ↓
can open

(9) Mary can open the window.

These are explanations of how to generate the surface structures.

Students can understand them easily. They can practice them by writing them, and they can master rules to generate sentences. After they master those rules, they can apply them to many other sentences (practice 1). After they can use those rules well, they can have the performance practice (practice 2), combination practice and pattern practice in order to speak English fluently.

## Practice 2

Combination practice is the drill of combining sentences to make longer sentences. Combination practice is productive and strengthens pattern practice.

(10) a Nancy made something.
b Jack knows it.
c *Jack knows it (=Nancy made something).
d Jack knows Nancy made something.
e *Jack knows Nancy made what.
f Jack knows what Nancy made.
(* = ungrammatical sentence)

Using the same procedure the following sentences are generated.

(11) Jack knows when Nancy made a doll.
(12) Jack knows where Nancy made a doll.
(13) Jack knows how Nancy made a doll.
(14) Jack knows for whom Nancy made a doll.

The intermediate sentences are shown above. In order to generate the surface structure, these intermediate structures are necessary in the mental process, even if the speaker is unconscious of it. To show the intermediate sentences is the economical way to teach English and students can understand it well.

Drill 1

*John wants it (=Ellen will come back early).
*John wants it (=for Ellen to come back early).
John wants Ellen to come back early.

Students learn how to combine two sentences using only a pen and notebook.

Drill 2

Teacher: Ellen will come back early.

Students: * ______ for Ellen to come back early.

Students practice changing $S_2$ orally in this drill.

Drill 3

Teacher: Ellen will come back early. (S1)
John wants it. (S2)

Students: John wants Ellen to come back early.

The teacher says two sentences and students have to change $S_2$ and combine it to S1 orally.

Drill 4

$S_2$ is not said, but the teacher's visual shows it. The teacher shows a picture of Ellen playing the piano, and gives $S_1$.

Teacher: John wants it. (S1)

Students: John wants Ellen to play the piano.

First, students practice changing only $S_2$. Second, they change only $S_1$ and third, they change both.

After they finish combination practice, they have pattern practice, emphasizing conversion and selection. Students practice to speak English fluently using their acquired competence.

### Model Class Based on Transformational Generative Grammar

An English class making use of transformational generative grammar might be organized like this:

1. Introduction to the situation
2. Presentation of new sentences
3. Explanation of how to generate those sentences
4. Practice
   a writing according to the process of generating sentences
   b aural-oral practice (latter half of combination practice)
   c pattern practice
5. Study with textbooks, including memorization

## Reading Class

Embedded sentences in clauses cause difficulties in reading English. Long clauses have many embedded sentences which have been reduced or consolidated.

For example:

(15) Knowing that she would make little of her illness, I slipped out unseen.

This "unseen" means "without being seen by her," that is, "as I would not be seen by her." So one word "unseen" represents an eight- word clause. It is natural that Japanese students have difficulty understanding this.

All sentences consist of a noun phrase and a verb phrase, and so do clauses. Some phrases have reduced sentences; they have the meanings of the noun phrase and the verb phrase. So it is important to understand the base structure of the clause and the phrase. Thus, it is effective for teachers to show the base structures on the blackboard.

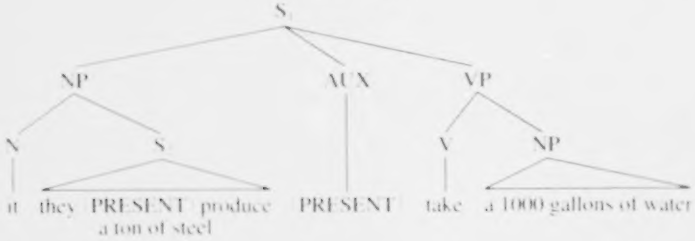
One of the big problems in reading is understanding coordination and subordination. Teachers have to show how sentences are embedded and the relationships between the main and the embedded sentences.

Many students have trouble with noun phrase and nominalizations. Teachers can show the following rules:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Rule 1 | 1. Art N | article + noun |
| | 2. N (S) | apposition clause |
| | 3. NP (S) | relative clause |
| | 4. it (S) | NP in $S_1$ is the same with embedded sentences |
| Rule 2 | 1. Action Nominal | |
| | 2. Gerundive nominal | |
| | 3. Infinitival nominal | |
| | 4. Factive nominal | |
| | 5. Abstractive nominal | |

(16) a It (= they produce a ton of steel) takes a 1000 gallons of water.

DIAGRAM XIV



1. Factive nominal

(16) b *It (that they produce one ton of steel) takes a 1000 gallons of water.

it deletion transformation

(16) c that they produce one ton of steel takes a 1000 gallons of water.

extraposition transformation

(16) d It takes a 1000 gallons of water that they produce one ton of steel.

2. Infinitival nominal

(16) e *It (for them to produce one ton of steel) takes a 1000 gallons of water.

it deletion transformation

(16) f (For them) to produce one ton of steel takes a 1000 gallons of water.

it deletion transformation

(16) g It takes a 1000 gallons of water (for them) to produce one ton of steel.

3. Gerundive nominal

(16) h *It (their producing one ton of steel) takes a 1000 gallons of water.

it deletion transformation

(16) i (Their) producing one ton of steel takes a 1000 gallons of water.

extraposition transformation

(16) j It takes a 1000 gallons of water (their) producing one ton of steel.

So it is clear that there is relatedness among these three nominals.

It is possible to find the nominal in verb phrases.

(17) a I persuaded a doctor to examine Jim.

b *I persuaded a doctor of it (=he would examine Jim).

(18) a I expected a doctor to examine Jim.

b *I expected it (=a doctor would examine Jim).

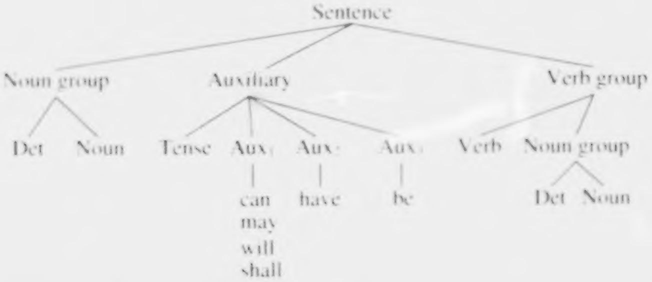
As the writer has shown, nominalization is important to understanding English sentences, and by applying these transformations, it becomes easier for students to understand.

### Writing Class

Writing is the best way for students to understand the process of generating a sentence. Therefore writing is emphasized more in a class based on transformational generative grammar. Students follow the directions and generate a sentence. They find rules for generating sentences, and they can generate even unlearned sentences. Writing is the important part of practice 1. It not only reinforces students' knowledge of grammar but also gives students opportunities to find rules.

Another idea is for teachers to show the following diagram, so students will have the basic rules to generate sentences.

DIAGRAM XV



This diagram is much better than the long oral explanations by teachers, because students can understand the word order in English sentences. However, students have to learn some simple rules. They can choose one or more than one auxiliary. The first auxiliary shows the tense. If there is no auxiliary 1 in a sentence to show the tense, auxiliary 2 does. If there are no auxiliaries 1 and 2, then auxiliary 3 must show the tense. If there is no auxiliary, then the main verb shows the tense.

The diagram and rules are learned so that students will not generate the following ungrammatical sentences:

(19) a *Father will has done a work.
b *It will fine tomorrow.
c *He has not came here.

The word "not" is inserted after the word which shows tense, in order to generate negative sentences. If such a word comes at the beginning of the sentence, it generates question sentences.

The most important thing in writing classes is that students have to understand how to embed sentences in the main sentences. When they learn it, they can generate more complicated sentences.

## Conclusion

Since foreign-language teaching began, methodology has been based on theories of linguistics. As linguistic theory changed, methodology of language teaching also changed. The audio-lingual method, based on structural linguistics, was the best among previous methods before transformational generative grammar was introduced. It improved the students' proficiency in English, particularly listening and speaking ability. Even now many teachers believe that it is the best method, and English classes at Japanese junior high schools are based on it.

In order to improve the audio-lingual method class, teachers have to adopt transformational generative grammar. However it is not a method of language teaching, but a theory of language, and it is complicated. Teachers have to find what they can use from transformational generative grammar, and also find how they can adapt it to their English classrooms. First of all, they can adopt its basic theory for the background theory of English teaching. The purpose of English teaching based on transformational generative grammar is to build students' competence in English. That is, students master the rules to generate English sentences, so the creative aspect of language learning is most emphasized. Second, teachers can adopt techniques based on transformational generative grammar to explain grammar and to have drills in their current classes even if they use textbooks based on the audio-lingual method. However, even if it is possible to improve present English classes with techniques based on transformational generative grammar, textbooks are based on the audio-lingual method, and each teacher has to prepare too much to arrange materials, explanations, and drills based on transformational generative grammar. Students may get confused with different methods demanded by the textbook, and those used by the teacher. Thus, it is not the most effective way to teach English. The third way to adopt transformational generative grammar is to create new textbooks in order to have improved English classes.

Transformational generative grammar can strengthen the audio-lingual method. In particular, it is effective in practice 1. However it cannot replace the audio-lingual method completely. The audio-lingual method will be effective even after transformational generative grammar is adopted, particularly in practice 2. Pattern practice will be the best way to train students to speak English fluently.

There are many problems in English teaching at Japanese junior high schools, and teachers and administrators have to solve those problems. It will take a long time and cost a lot to solve them completely. One of the possible and practical ways is adopting transformational generative grammar in the English class and in the textbooks. Lessons and textbooks based on transformational generative grammar can suit English teaching at not only junior high schools, but also senior high schools and colleges in Japan. It is not too difficult for them to do it and does not cost much. Fortunately, transformational generative grammar is well known to linguists and scholars in Japan. However most junior high school teachers do not know it well. Also, the study of the application of transformational generative grammar is not advanced. So there is a big gap between linguists and English teachers, and between theory and practice. It is important and necessary that linguists and English teachers cooperate to improve English teaching, and this paper has been written to help with this cooperation.

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## Notes

[1] This paper was revised from the writer's master's thesis, "A Study of Application of Transformational Generative Grammar to Japanese Junior High School English Teaching," submitted to the School of Education and to the Faculty of the Graduate School of the University of Kansas, 1973.

[2] There were five textbooks for Japanese junior high school students authorized by the Ministry of Education: *Blue Sky Books, Everyday English, New Horizon English Course, Total English Junior Crown Series,* and *New Prince English Course.*

[3] These include A. A. Hill, C. F. Hocket, J. Sledd, H. A. Hall Jr., H. A. Gleason, E. F. Hamp, C. C. Fries, J. T. Waterman, J. H. Greenberg and W. G. Moulton.

[4] Lado (1964) explained the procedure of contrastive analysis well.

# 4. Process and Social Aspects of Writing: Theory and Classroom Application

S. Kathleen Kitao
Namie Saeki

## Abstract

In recent years, there has come to be a greater appreciation of writing as a process. In this paper, we have contrasted process and product approaches. Product approaches emphasize the end product of the writing, that is, a composition that is grammatically correct, that obeys rhetorical conventions, etc., reflecting a traditional teacher-centered approach to language education. In contrast, the process approach emphasizes the process that the writer goes through in arriving at the final product. It also emphasizes writing as a social activity, directed at an audience.

One activity which places emphasis on writing as a social activity is the use of secret friend journals. In this activity, students are paired with partners in another class. They write letters to each other each week in a journal, but they use pseudonyms, so they do not know the real identity of their partners.

In this paper, we have described how we have used this activity and students' reactions to it.

Writing is considered the most difficult of the four basic language skills to master, both for first and for second language writers. Writing is an extremely complex activity that requires the writer to control a wide variety of complex information, ranging from letter formation and spelling to rhetorical patterns. While virtually all children learn to speak and comprehend their native language, not all of them learn to write. Learning to speak and comprehend spoken language are naturally occurring processes. Writing must be taught (White, 1981).

In recent years, teachers and researchers have gained a new understanding of the process of writing. Traditional approaches have been challenged, and new methods have emerged that reflect a new understanding of this process. In this paper, we will compare and contrast the two major types of approaches to the teaching of writing — the traditional product-based approaches and the more recent process-based approaches. We will discuss language as a social activity — an aspect of process approaches — and the advantages and disadvantages of dialogue journals as one application of a process approach. Finally, we will describe the use of "secret friend journals" as an alternative to dialogue journals, and report the results of a survey of our students on their responses to the use of secret friend journals.

## Product and Process Approaches to the Teaching of Writing

In recent years, two major approaches to the teaching of first or second/foreign language writing have emerged, based on two different views of the nature of writing. These are product-based approaches and process-based approaches (Nunan, 1989).

### Product Approaches

Product approaches are defined by their emphasis on the end result of the writing process — an essay, a letter, and so on. The underlying assumption of product approaches is that the actual writing is the last step in the process of writing. A teacher who uses a product approach emphasizes producing a composition that is grammatically correct, that obeys rhetorical conventions, etc.

Product approaches reflect traditional, teacher-centered approaches to teaching in general. Teachers in a variety of situations, both L1 and L2, rely on an initiation-response-evaluation (IRE) pattern of discourse. In this typical structure, the teacher initiates the interaction by asking a question, knowing the answer already; the student responds; and the response is evaluated by the teacher (Johnson, 1989). Specifically, in the traditional composition class, the teacher assigns a writing task, whether an exercise or a composition, knowing what responses he/she expects; the students do the exercise or write the composition; and the teacher evaluates the results.

### Process Approaches

In contrast to product-based approaches to writing, process approaches emphasize the act of writing itself, the means by which the text is created more than the text itself. Such approaches presuppose a different view of the nature of writing – a view of writing as a process that evolves through several stages as the writer discovers and molds meaning and adapts to the potential audience. These approaches stress the revising process and audience awareness.

Research on the process of writing supports process approaches (see Raimes, 1985 or Zamel, 1987 for an overview of this research). Researchers in second language classrooms of various levels (for example, Ammon, 1985; Diaz, Moll and Mehan, 1985; Hildenbrand, 1985) have studied writing programs that viewed writing as a means of communication, promoted frequent writing of longer texts, and placed emphasis on formal aspects of writing in the context of creating meaningful content. Their results indicate that students made superior gains in the quality of their writing.

### Relationship Between the Two Approaches

These two approaches to the teaching of writing are not necessarily mutually exclusive (Liebman-Kleine, 1986). They can be used in concert in the same course, with some types of assignments emphasizing audience, fluency in writing, revising, and other process variables, with other assignments putting more emphasis on control over the mechanics of the language.

## Writing as a Social Activity

A corollary to process approaches to writing is that writing, like other forms of language, is a social activity, aimed at purposeful and meaningful communication with others. Thus writing is not only a linguistic process but a social one as well. Among the social aspects of writing are the opportunity to control topic, assume a variety of social roles, perform functions (advising, requesting, complaining, etc.) (Johnson, 1989), and adapt to a specific audience. Research (Edelsky, 1986; Elbow, 1981; Graves, 1983; Roen and Willey, 1988; Rubin, 1984) has indicated that awareness of the intended audience of a piece of writing influences the style and quality of that writing.

Unfortunately, the structure of the typical writing class, with the interaction limited to the teacher-student relationship and with the teacher in the role of knower and evaluator, limits rather than expands the use of written language. In their role of responder, the students have little opportunity to explore and vary social roles through their writing. One solution to the limitations of the classroom is the dialogue journal.

## Dialogue Journals

The role of dialogue in the learning of oral language is easily recognized. However, it is only relatively recently that the importance of dialogue to the development of writing ability has begun to be recognized and the potential contribution of dialogue exploited (Shuy, 1987). Dialogue writing has the advantages that it builds on what students already know, it allows the student to generate topics, and it allows the use of a variety of functions. One way that dialogue writing has been exploited is through the use of teacher-student dialogue journals.

## What is a Dialogue Journal?

A dialogue journal is a written conversation between a teacher and student, done regularly over a period of time (Peyton, 1987). In a notebook, students write on any topic they choose, asking questions, complaining, informing, etc., and the teacher writes back, either responding to the student's topic or introducing new topics, offering comments, observations and opinions, giving advice, requesting or giving clarification, etc.

In a dialogue journal, the interaction is carried out over an extended period of time, with each partner having equal turns. In addition to being interactive and continuous, the characteristics of a dialogue journal are that each writer is free to bring up topics of mutual interest, and the partner is expected to acknowledge and often comment on the offered topic (Stanton, 1980).

The focus of the dialogue journal is on communication rather than on correct form. The teacher's responses should be directed to the content of the student's journal entry, not the grammatical form. This allows students to express themselves freely.

## Background of the Use of Dialogue Journals

The use of the dialogue journal was introduced by a sixth grade teacher named Leslee Reed, whose students wrote her messages every day. She responded to those messages, and the written interaction between teacher and students was analyzed by Staton (1980). Since then, the use of dialogue journals has been expanded to uses in English as a second language, reading, writing, counseling, and other areas (Shuy, 1987).

## Advantages and Disadvantages

**Advantages**. Dialogue journals have a number of advantages (Peyton, 1987). First, they allow students to participate at whatever level of English proficiency they are. Students can write about their own interests and daily activities, using the vocabulary and grammatical structures that they already control.

Second, they provide optimal conditions for acquisition of language. They focus on meaning rather than form and make use of topics of interest to the student. In reading the teacher's responses, students are exposed to language that is comprehensible and meaningful to them.

Third, dialogue journals allow the control over topic that Johnson (1989) advocated. Johnson believed that having control over the topic of the writing is motivating for students and contributes to the acquisition of language.

Fourth, dialogue journals allow students to make use of different functions, something that is not normally a part of essay writing. This both builds on and reinforces what students have learned about functions in oral language.

Fifth, dialogue journals extend teacher-student contact. They allow teachers to get to know their students better than the normal classroom situation allows. Teachers can learn about their students outside activities, opinions about class activities and other topics, etc.

**Disadvantages**. The major disadvantage of dialogue journals is the amount of time that they require on the part of the teacher. Even for a relatively small class, responding to students can consume a great deal of time, in addition to evaluating other work that students might be doing.

Another disadvantage of dialogue journals between student and teacher is that there is the probability of self-censorship. While we do not know of any research on this point, it has been our observation that when writing to other students, our students initiate more personal topics than when writing to teachers. While adapting to audience is an important part of the social aspect of writing, writing to other students seems to give writing students a wider choice of topics.

## Secret Friend Journals: A Variation on Dialogue Journals

A variation of dialogue journals proposed by Green and Green (1991) is "secret friend journals." Secret friend journals are essentially student-student dialogue journals, with the additional facet that the participants' identities are kept secret from each other. In this final section, we will discuss the secret friend journal assignment that we have used, its procedures, and its advantages and disadvantages.

We have used a secret friend journal assignment in our required first year writing courses at Doshisha Women's Junior College in the academic years of 1991 and 1992. We also gave the students questionnaires about the experience in June 1991, January 1992, and July 1992. Based on our experiences, we have observed that secret friend journals share some of the advantages of teacher-student dialogue journals and have some additional advantages. Secret friend journals also resolve the disadvantages of teacher-student dialogue journals.

### Overview

In secret friend journals, instead of writing to a teacher and receiving the teacher's feedback, students in different classes/sections are carefully paired by the teacher(s) according to the students' ability and other factors, and the matched students write to each other regularly over a period of time. In other words, if a dialogue journal is a written conversation between teacher and student, a secret friend journal is a written conversation between two students who have similar English language proficiency and common interests.

In this assignment, the students do not know their partners' identities until the end of the project. Throughout the course of the project, the paired students freely express themselves on any topic they choose, asking questions and responding to them, expressing anxiety, offering comments, giving compliments, complaining, informing, negotiating, and so on. Gradually students establish their relationship and mutual understanding.

The students' written entries are read by the teachers each time they write, but the writing is not corrected, responded to, or graded by the teachers.

## Procedure

**Setting up the assignment**. Before starting the project, we decided on a circulation routine, shown below. The circulation routine depends on the meeting times of the two classes and how frequently the teachers want the students to write. Two different sections of the same course or two classes do the assignment. The following chart shows the circulation routine we used in 1992. Both sections met once a week throughout the year; the Kitao class met Thursday 13:30-15:00, and the Saeki class Friday 9:00-10:30. This procedure continued throughout the academic year.

| | Kitao class (Th) | Saeki class (Fri) |
|---|---|---|
| Orientation | Secret friend journal assignment explained | |
| | Ss assigned to write self-intro. in notebook | Ss assigned to write self-intro. on separate paper |
| class 1 | Ss turn in self-intro. | Ss turn in self-intro. |
| | Teachers read self-intros, pair students; separate paper put in partner's notebook | |
| class 2 | Ss receive journals | |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| class 3 | Ss turn in journals | | |
| | | Teachers read/check | |
| | | | Ss receive journals |
| | | | Ss return journals<br>by Thurs. morning<br>in mailbox |
| class 4 | Ss receive journals | | |
| class 5 | Ss return journals | | |
| | | Teachers read/check | |
| | | | Ss receive journals |

**Explaining the assignment**. During the orientation, the concept and task of the secret friend journal assignment is explained to the students in both classes, and they are all assigned to write a one-page self-introduction. One class writes the self-introduction in a notebook, and the other class writes on a separate piece of paper. The self-introduction may include their hometowns, hobbies, interests, future plans or dreams, family backgrounds, and anything else that they would like to disclose about themselves. However, the self-introduction should not include their real names, and the names should not appear anywhere in the journals. (So that the teachers know who the self-introductions are from, students' names are attached to the papers or notebooks on small pieces of paper. These papers are removed before the notebooks are given to the first class.) Other requirements such as the approximate length of entry students must write each time (we used two pages in a B5-sized notebook) and the assignment deadlines should also be clearly explained.

Teachers may suggest topics and guidelines for the self-introductions and journal entries. For example, the self-introduction should be personal but not too personal (students are introducing themselves to a stranger); students should tell enough about themselves to be interesting, but not so much that their identity could easily be guessed (Green and Green, 1991).

During the first year that we did this assignment, students just made journal entries. A student would read her partner's journal entry and write one of her own. Sometimes students made their own entries without really responding to the partner's entry. The second year that we used this assignment, we had the students write their journal in the form of a letter, beginning the entry with a salutation and ending a closing and signature. We felt that this format encouraged students to respond to their partners more.

For their self introduction, students were instructed to date the entry and use the salutation, "Dear Friend." They were instructed to begin the letter by specifying what nickname they wanted their partner to use to address them and explain why.

During the first year, students used A4-sized notebooks and were assigned to write one page every two weeks. During the second year, they used B5-sized notebooks and wrote two pages every two weeks.

It was strongly emphasized that students needed to turn in the notebook every time it was assigned and turn it in on time. This project can only be successful if most or all of the students are conscientious in carrying out the assignment.

**Pairing off students**. After receiving the self-introductions, the teachers pair up the students according to their writing proficiency, interests, and home regions. As much as possible, students with similar proficiency and interests and from different home regions are paired. Other factors such as writing style and the amount the students write are also taken into account.

When the class size of the two sections are not equal, some students must write to more than one partner at once. The teachers ask students with higher writing proficiency to write to more than one partner, offering extra credit, if possible. Alternatively, two students in one class can share the journal with one student in the smaller class, i.e., a group of three students rather than a pair could correspond.

Each pair is assigned a number, which is written on the front cover of the notebook instead of the students' real names. A list should be made of the numbers and names of the students for the teachers' use. The numbers and list are useful when the teacher is reading the journals and to check quickly to see which students have not turned in journals.

**The teachers' role**. It should be emphasized to students that the teachers will read the journal entries but not comment on them or make any corrections. If any grading is done, it should be based on whether or not students completed the assignment and completed it on time, not on content or grammar. If students are digressing from the nature of the assignment or not following the basic regulations of the assignment, teachers should give advice orally to them.

**The end of the assignment**. At the end of the academic year, we arranged a joint party for the two classes involved so that students should meet their secret friends face-to-face.

The party could be arranged at the middle of the course, but the results of our questionnaire indicated that students wanted to continue with the same secret friend throughout the academic year and meet the secret friend at the end of the year.

### Questionnaire on the Use of Secret Friend Journals

We used secret friend journals in our first year college writing courses in the academic year 1991 and the first half of 1992. At the end of each semester, we gave students a questionnaire and asked their opinions about the journal assignment. We asked about the usefulness of the assignment, problems students found, how they felt about the frequency of the assignment (writing every two weeks), how they felt about their partners, and so on.

Based on the results of the questionnaires, students felt that secret friend journals were useful in helping them improve their writing. Though most students did not specify their reasons, a few students mentioned that the journals allowed them to write about their daily lives, to express themselves freely, and to increase their English vocabulary. Most students felt that writing two B5 pages every other week was the right amount of work. Very few students had any complaints about the assignment or their partners, and most wanted to continue the assignment through the second semester and meet their partners at the end of the academic year in January.

### Advantages of Secret Friend Journals

Secret friend journals have most of the advantages that teacher-student dialogue journals have, and have some additional advantages as well.

**Advantages shared with teacher-student dialogue journals**. First, since students are carefully paired in terms of their English writing proficiency, the level of reading and writing expected of them is within their ability. In addition, students are exposed to new expressions that their partners use within a context that they are likely to understand. They have an opportunity to become aware of them and eventually, to be able to manipulate them and widen their store of expressions. Some of the students mentioned in the survey the usefulness of secret friend journals in terms of the way to increase their English vocabulary and expressions.

Second, because students are paired according to their interests, they can use writing in English purely as a means to express their thoughts to their partners on topics on which they are interested, a situation which the students find motivating. Topics are totally controlled by the students. Information is exchanged and meaning is clarified. The writings are focused on meaning rather than form. We observed that students often treated their secret friend as a close confidant, sharing very personal information and asking advice on personal problems.

Students writings frequently express their enjoyment of the opportunity to communicate with their partner. The following excerpts from students' journals demonstrate this:

> — Hello. Thank you for your interesting story about your life in USA. You had a lot of good experiences this summer, didn't you? I came to want to visit to America by reading your journal. . . .
>
> — Hello! I'm happy because you wrote me in spite of leaving the diary notebook. I like writing this. . . .
>
> — Hi, this is the second time to write to you. Now first, I'll answer your questions. . . .
>
> — I'm sorry that I can't write well in English, but I want to continue with you more and more.
>
> — I need your opinion about my problem. I'm looking forward to reading your reply. Thank you for your help. . . .

Third, although secret friend journals do not directly extend teacher-student contact through writing and responding, teachers can learn more about their students activities, opinions, problems, etc., while reading their entries. In fact, it appears that students choose a wider variety of topics in secret friend journals than in teacher-student dialogue journals.

Fourth, in writing secret friend journals, students use a lot of different functions in order to convey what they want to tell their partners. These functions include: complaining, encouraging, giving and asking advice, complimenting, negotiating, asking for information, consoling, and congratulating.

**Additional advantages**. We have found that the following are advantages specifically linked to secret friend journals. First, once the students are paired, this assignment requires relatively little of the teacher's time. It would be difficult or impossible for a teacher to provide the amount of response to all of the students in a class that the students' partners do continually through the academic year. Teachers can spend the time instead responding to other types of assignments.

Second, the fact that the partner's identity is not known seems to add spice and mystery to this type of dialogue journal assignment. As mentioned earlier, our survey results indicated that most of the students preferred not to learn their partners' identities until the end of the course.

## Conclusion

Research has indicated that making use of the process nature of writing, including its social aspects, improves the teaching of writing. Dialogue journals, either between teacher and students or between paired students, are one classroom application of the process approach.

Secret friend journals are one form of dialogue journals that are very useful for developing English proficiency and motivating students to write.

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# 5. Contrastive Analysis Between English Diphthongs [aɪ], [aʊ], and [ɔɪ], and Similar Vowel Combinations in Japanese

Kenji Kitao

## Abstract

Structural linguistics has compared languages on the basis of their phonemes, morphemes, syntax, etc., emphasizing the differences between languages. However, even aspects that are similar but not exactly the same can cause difficulties, so in this study, I have looked at three diphthongs in English and three similar vowel combinations in Japanese using a spectrograph and examined the similarities and differences between them.

## Introduction

Structural linguists have compared and contrasted languages on such characteristics as phonemes, morphemes, and syntax. In the period during and after World War II, linguists such as Charles C. Fries who were involved in language teaching believed that the differences between the native language and the target language would be problematic, particularly when certain sounds in the target language are missing in the native language, and developed materials to teach English to students who spoke certain native languages (Fries, 1945).

Lado (1957) explained in detail how to compare sounds, and he also explained how to test sounds (Lado, 1961). Nilsen and Nilsen

(1971) made extensive lists of contrasts of phonemes and predicted which language speakers would have problems with each list.

This language teaching based on contrastive linguistics had a strong influence on English teaching in Japan in the 1960s, and comparisons and contrasts between Japanese and English were studied (Ota, 1965; Umegaki, 1961; Umegaki, 1975).

English language teachers have been interested in comparison and contrast studies between Japanese and English, and books have been published on that topic in Japan (Fukuhara, Iwasaki, and Nakajima, 1965; Jackson, 1967; Kleinjans, 1958)

These publications have contributed to English teaching in Japan using contrasts between Japanese and English. They emphasize that English sounds that are absent in Japanese would be the greatest problem, that sounds that were different would also be a problem, but that sounds that were similar would not be a problem. However, even similar sounds are not exactly the same, and in this study, I have looked at similar sounds — diphthongs in English and similar vowel combinations in Japanese — with a spectrograph and at the differences that even similar sounds can have in English and Japanese, which could be problems for Japanese people speaking English.

## Sounds in English and Japanese

There are many differences between the sounds of English and those of Japanese; for example, the English [r] is produced with retraction of the tongue but the Japanese [r] is produced with little retraction and has a sound between [l] and [r] in English. Japanese has fewer sounds than English; Japanese, for example, does not have the sounds [ɪ], [e], [u], [o], [ə], [f], [v], [θ], and [ð]. Both English and Japanese have the sounds [i], [ɛ], [a], [ɔ], [p], [b], [t], [d], [k], [g], etc. However, strictly speaking, even the sounds that are similar are different phonetically.

There are three diphthongs in English, [aɪ], [aʊ], and [ɔɪ], and they make one sound as a pair. Japanese, in contrast, has no diphthongs. Each vowel is one syllable or makes one syllable in combination with a consonant. Vowels can be next to other vowels. Consonants, with the exception of [n], cannot form syllables without a vowel.

### Hypothesis

This experiment compares three English diphthongs [aɪ], [aʊ], and [ɔɪ] with similar sounds in Japanese which consist of two vowels, [a][i], [a][u], and [ɔ][i] and considers the acoustic differences among them.

As Japanese is a syllabic language, there is a clear change between the two vowels, but English diphthongs form one syllable, and the tongue moves smoothly between them.

English has clear stress and its diphthongs show stress clearly on the amplitude display; the stressed part is longer than the unstressed part. However, Japanese does not have clear stress, and the two vowels are almost the same length.

### Procedure

In order to study the differences between the English diphthongs and the Japanese vowel combinations, I looked for as many words as possible with the [aɪ], [aʊ], and [ɔɪ] sounds in English and Japanese. I paired Japanese and English sounds in the same environments and got 17 pairs. I chose 6 pairs [paɪ], [paɪn], [kaʊ], [gaʊn], [tɔɪ], and [kɔɪn], each of which has a plosive initial sound. Half of them have open endings and the rest have [n] at the end.

I made two lists of these pairs in both English and Japanese. I used ordinary spelling for English and Chinese characters, *hiragana*, and *katakana* for Japanese, because those were the easiest for native speakers to read and most likely to elicit natural sounds. To avoid problems characteristic of first and last words on a list (the first spoken loudly, and the last pronounced with falling juncture). I added one extra word at the beginning and one extra word at the end. The lists were as follows:

| Japanese List | | English List | |
|---|---|---|---|
| List 1 | List 2 | List 1 | List 2 |
| コイン | 問（とい） | coin | toy |
| パイ | パイン | pie | pine |
| 買う | ガウン | cow | gown |
| 問（とい） | コイン | toy | coin |
| パイン | パイ | pine | pie |
| ガウン | 買う | gown | cow |
| コイン | 問（とい） | coin | toy |
| パイ | パイン | pie | pine |

### Participants

I used native speakers of English and Japanese in order to get three voices in each language. I asked them to read the lists, and I recorded their voices. I explained that I was studying pronunciation and instructed them to read the list with the same loudness as counting, to put a small pause between words, etc. I kept the microphone 12 inches away from the speakers, and when they practiced, I measured the loudness and kept the recording consistent and took their reading at least twice for each list. I wrote the recording record and the speakers' backgrounds.

**The American participants.** Three American participants were used to record the lists. Mr. Murai was born in Hawaii and grew up there. I recorded his voice in my apartment with a 2140-5733-001 tape recorder. Mr. Wallace was born in Kansas and grew up there. I recorded his voice in my apartment with the same tape recorder. Mr. Dale was born in Kansas and grew up there. I recorded his voice on October 29 in my apartment with the same tape recorder.

**The Japanese participants.** Three Japanese participants were also used to record the lists. I was born in Kyoto and grew up there. I speak Kansai dialect. I recorded my voice in my apartment with the same tape recorder. Mr. Sugimoto was born in Osaka and grew up there. He speaks Kansai dialect. I recorded his voice at the recording room of the language laboratory with the same tape recorder. Mr. Tamaki was born in Tokyo and grew up there, and he speaks standard Japanese. I recorded his voice at his apartment with a 19430-9886 tape recorder.

**Recording conditions**. The recording room at the language laboratory was ideal for recording, as it was quiet. Mr. Tamaki's apartment was located in a quiet area, and there was no noise. His apartment was large, and there was no echo. There was no sound of rain.

My apartment was in a basement surrounded by a wall. It is not as large as Tamaki's, and traffic was heavy outside. I recorded the speakers late at night when it was very quiet. It was not raining.

### Measurements

When I recorded, I found that the volume of the English speakers fell when they pronounced "coin," so I had to adjust for this. I listened to the tape carefully and found that every speaker pronounced List 1 better, so I used List 1 from each speaker. I put the recordings on a spectrograph. I used a big tape recorder, except with Mr. Tamaki's voice, for which I used a 19430-9886 tape recorder.

To analyze the spectrograms, I used the expanded scale. I used 500 in order to expand it twice. I got wide band spectrograms and amplitude displays for each word and measured the length of each word on the spectrogram with a ruler which had 20 subdivisions to the inch. As the spectrograms had much background noise, it was difficult to find endings. I divided the spectrogram into the plosive part, the [a] part, the changing part, the [ɪ] part, and the rest (the part without any formant at the end). (A formant is the darkest part of the spectrogram, which indicates the most intense part of the vowel sound.) I measured each part except the plosive part and calculated its percentage of the whole length. The results are found in Table 1.

Table 1 Length of Sounds and Ratios of Each Part Shown on Spectrogram (1/1,000 seconds)

| language | English | | | | | | Japanese | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| speaker | A | | B | | C | | D | | E | | F | |
| | length | % | length | % | length | % | length | % | length | % | length | % |
| pai | 390 | 100 | 510 | 100 | 410 | 100 | 420 | 100 | 340 | 100 | 440 | 100 |
| a | 90 | 23 | 210 | 41 | 140 | 34 | 110 | 26 | 80 | 24 | 60 | 14 |
| tran | 60 | 15 | 100 | 20 | 140 | 34 | 80 | 19 | 50 | 15 | 110 | 25 |
| i | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 40 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 160 | 47 | 70 | 16 |
| rest | 90 | 23 | 90 | 18 | 40 | 10 | 210 | 50 | 0 | 0 | 170 | 39 |
| kai | 400 | 100 | 480 | 100 | 400 | 100 | 490 | 100 | 380 | 100 | 440 | 100 |
| a | 210 | 53 | 260 | 54 | 130 | 33 | 110 | 22 | 90 | 24 | 110 | 25 |
| tran | 60 | 15 | 80 | 17 | 70 | 18 | 150 | 31 | 60 | 16 | 80 | 18 |
| i | 0 | 0 | 50 | 10 | 30 | 8 | 100 | 20 | 120 | 32 | 160 | 36 |
| rest | 40 | 10 | 50 | 10 | 50 | 13 | 80 | 16 | 50 | 13 | 30 | 7 |
| tai | 400 | 100 | 420 | 100 | 390 | 100 | 450 | 100 | 360 | 100 | 380 | 100 |
| a | 100 | 25 | 120 | 29 | 130 | 33 | 140 | 31 | 60 | 17 | 100 | 26 |
| tran | 70 | 18 | 120 | 29 | 150 | 38 | 30 | 7 | 40 | 11 | 70 | 18 |
| i | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 90 | 20 | 110 | 31 | 130 | 34 |
| rest | 80 | 20 | 110 | 26 | 70 | 18 | 170 | 38 | 10 | 3 | 50 | 13 |
| pain | 420 | 100 | 470 | 100 | 480 | 100 | 520 | 100 | 420 | 100 | 470 | 100 |
| a | 110 | 26 | 80 | 17 | 70 | 15 | 130 | 25 | 70 | 17 | 110 | 23 |
| tran | 120 | 29 | 60 | 13 | 100 | 21 | 70 | 13 | 50 | 12 | 80 | 17 |
| i | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 50 | 10 | 120 | 29 | 60 | 13 |
| rest | 140 | 33 | 180 | 38 | 200 | 42 | 240 | 46 | 120 | 29 | 210 | 45 |
| gain | 420 | 100 | 480 | 100 | 460 | 100 | 570 | 100 | 490 | 100 | 490 | 100 |
| a | 150 | 36 | 280 | 58 | 310 | 67 | 180 | 32 | 160 | 33 | 160 | 33 |
| tran | 100 | 24 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 50 | 9 | 20 | 4 | 100 | 20 |
| i | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 90 | 16 | 50 | 10 | 70 | 14 |
| rest | 140 | 33 | 160 | 33 | 130 | 28 | 150 | 26 | 160 | 33 | 150 | 31 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| kɔɪn | 410 | 100 | 440 | 100 | 470 | 100 | 500 | 100 | 400 | 100 | 470 | 100 |
| ɔ | 110 | 27 | 120 | 27 | 120 | 26 | 110 | 22 | 40 | 10 | 90 | 19 |
| tran- | 70 | 17 | 120 | 27 | 70 | 15 | 40 | 8 | 80 | 20 | 80 | 17 |
| ɪ | 60 | 15 | 0 | 0 | 50 | 11 | 0 | 0 | 150 | 38 | 50 | 11 |
| rest | 110 | 27 | 130 | 30 | 180 | 38 | 290 | 58 | 70 | 18 | 190 | 40 |

The figures on the left side show the length of the parts in milliseconds, and the figures on the right side show the percentage of each part against the whole length.

I also measured frequencies of the second formants. If the formants were flat, I measured the frequency of the middle part. If not, I measured the middle part of beginning and ending formants. If it had the same change from the beginning to end, the frequency of the center is the average, and that is what I reported. If the change was not the same, I measured the frequency of the widest part of the formant. The results are found in Table 2.

Table 2 Frequency of Second Formant

| language | | | English | | | Japanese | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| speaker | | | A | B | C | D | E | F |
| paɪ | a | I | | 1,200 | | | | |
| | | M | 1,300 | 1,250 | 1,250 | 1,450 | 1,250 | 1,400 |
| | | F | | 1,300 | | | | |
| | ɪ | I | | | | | | |
| | | M | | | 2,100 | | 2,200 | 2,200 |
| | | F | | | | | | |
| kaʊ | a | I | 1,250 | 1,650 | 2,050 | | | 1,550 |
| | | M | 1,200 | 1,550 | 1,400 | 1,400 | 1,250 | 1,450 |
| | | F | 1,200 | 1,450 | 1,400 | | | 1,450 |
| | ʊ | I | | | 1,100 | | | |
| | | M | | 900 | 1,000 | 750 | 950 | 1,050 |
| | | F | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | I | 1,150 | 1,100 | 1,200 | 1,000 | | 1,150 |
| ɔ | M | 1,100 | 950 | 900 | 950 | 1,100 | 950 |
| | F | 1,100 | 950 | 900 | 950 | | 950 |
| tɔɪ | | | | | | | |
| | I | | | | | 2,000 | 2,400 |
| ɪ | M | | | | 2,150 | 2,200 | 2,550 |
| | F | | | | | 2,300 | 2,650 |
| | I | | 1,100 | | | | 1,350 |
| a | M | 1,250 | 1,200 | 1,150 | 1,400 | 1,300 | 1,425 |
| | F | | 1,200 | | | | 1,500 |
| paɪn | | | | | | | |
| | I | | | | | 2,150 | |
| ɪ | M | | | | ? | 2,200 | 2,600 |
| | F | | | | | 2,250 | |
| | I | 1,450 | 2,100 | 2,200 | 1,500 | 1,350 | |
| a | M | 1,300 | 1,500 | 1,200 | 1,250 | 1,225 | 1,250 |
| | F | 1,150 | 1,500 | 1,200 | 1,250 | 1,100 | |
| gaɪn | | | | | | | |
| | I | | | | | | 950 |
| ɪ | M | | | | 600 | ? | 900 |
| | F | | | | | | 850 |
| | I | 1,150 | 1,000 | 1,000 | | | |
| ɔ | M | 900 | 850 | 800 | 1,000 | 800 | 850 |
| | F | 900 | 1,050 | 1,000 | | | |
| kɔɪn | | | | | | | |
| | I | | | | | 2,150 | |
| ɪ | M | | | 2,250 | | 2,200 | 2,550 |
| | F | | | | | 2,250 | |

I = initial M = middle F = final

The figures here are cycles per second.

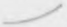
I tried to measure the first formants, but it was impossible to measure the first formants of [ɪ] and [ɪ], so I measured only [a] and [ɔ].

In order to avoid mismeasurements, I measured twice and if I had different results, I remeasured.

**Analyses**

paɪ. One of the most obvious characteristics is that the formants of [ɪ] have disappeared or are very short in English. That is, [ɪ] is almost devoiced. In Japanese, one speaker's formants for [ɪ] have disappeared, but another one's are very long. I added the formant of [ɪ] and space following it to get the [ɪ] part. The [ɪ] part in English is less than 23 percent but in Japanese it is about 50 percent, twice as long as in English. In English, the [a] part is longer than the [ɪ] part or at least equal, but in Japanese, the [ɪ] part is longer than the [a] part. Individual differences in the changing part are great, and it is hard to say for certain that English is longer than Japanese.

The loudness of the [ɪ] part is not nearly as strong as that of the [a] in English, but in Japanese that difference is smaller. That is, [a] is almost the same loudness in English and Japanese but the [ɪ] part in Japanese is louder than English. The [ɪ] part is almost devoiced in English but not in Japanese.

As for the frequency of each formant, individual differences were large, and I could not find particular patterns of difference between them. The formant of the changing part in Japanese is almost straight, but in English it is curved smoothly like .

kaɪ. The [a] part is very long in English, and it is still longer in Japanese. The [ɪ] part (with the formant) in English is very short or nonexistent, much shorter than in Japanese. That is, the [ɪ] part is almost devoiced in English. The [ɪ] part (including no formant part) in English is less than 25 percent, but in Japanese, it is more than 35 percent, so the [a] part is longer than the [ɪ] part in English but the [ɪ] part is longer in Japanese.

The amplitude display shows the same characteristics for the [a] part both in English and Japanese but that the [ɪ] part in Japanese is louder than in English.

There were no clear differences in the frequency of the formants in English and Japanese.

tɔɪ. [ɪ] is devoiced in English, but it is very clear in Japanese. In English, [ɔ] is longer than the [ɪ] part (including the part without the formant); in Japanese, the opposite is true. For two of the Japanese participants, the [ɪ] part is about 50 percent of the total length, but for the English speakers, it is about 25 percent or less, only half the length it is in Japanese. The [ɪ] part is similar in both languages. The changing part in English is longer than that in Japanese. The longest changing part in Japanese is as long as the shortest in English.

As for the loudness, the amplitude display shows that the [ɔ] part is loudest in both languages but the [ɪ] part is not as loud in English. Japanese has the louder sound in that environment, and Japanese [ɪ] is louder than that in English.

The individual variation of the frequency of the formants is as great as the difference between English and Japanese.

The changing part of Japanese is straight but the English changing part is curved smoothly. However, the differences are not so great.

paɪn. [a] is not devoiced but lowered in amplitude in English but in Japanese it is clearly shown with formants. Even though there is individual variation, the English changing part seems to be longer than the Japanese one. The Japanese [ɪn] part is less than 50 percent. The [a] part is almost the same in length in English and Japanese.

[a] is loudest both in English and Japanese. But the loudness of the English [a] is clearer and the loudness of the Japanese [aɪ] is shown well. It is louder in the English [aɪ].

The second formant of the English [a] is slightly lower than that in Japanese, but there is no clear difference between formants of English speakers and those of Japanese speakers.

gaɪn. The English [a] is much longer than the Japanese one. [ɪ] is devoiced in English but Japanese [ɪ] is clearly shown. The Japanese [ɪn] part (including no formant part) is more than 40 percent.

The changing part of two English speakers were devoiced. The Japanese changing part is short but not devoiced.

There was no clear difference between the loudness of English and Japanese.

There is no clear difference of frequency of formants between English and Japanese. However, the beginning part has a very high frequency in English but not in Japanese.

kɔɪn. The English [ɔ] is longer than the Japanese [ɔ]. The English [ɪn] part is shorter than the Japanese [ɪn] part. There is no clear difference in the changing part between English and Japanese. The English [ɪn] part is less than 50 percent and the Japanese [ɪn] part is more than 50 percent.

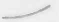
The loudness of [ɔ] in both English and Japanese is clear, and there is little difference. The loudness of the Japanese [ɪ] is clear but not the English [ɪ].

There is no clear difference in the frequency of formants between English speakers and Japanese speakers. The formants of the Japanese changing part is straight but the English one is curved smoothly.

## Conclusion

According to the analysis of each pair of words, the following conclusions were made.

The first vowel part in English is long and loudest, and it is longer than the second vowel part. But in Japanese the first vowel is short and loudest, and it is shorter than the second vowel.

There is no clear difference in length of the changing part in English and in Japanese, but the English changing part can be devoiced while it cannot be in Japanese. Formants of the changing part are curved smoothly like  in English but straight in Japanese.

The second vowel part in English is short and often lower in amplitude. It is not so loud in that environment. But in Japanese the second vowel is long and seldom devoiced. It is usually longer than the first vowel. Its loudness can usually be shown clearly.

As demonstrated in this study, even sounds that are relatively similar in English and Japanese are different. This points out the importance of teaching pronunciation. In addition, this study demonstrates the problems of using katakana to represent spelling in English, since the use of katakana gives the impression that the sounds are the same, when, in fact, they are not.

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## 6. Difficulty in English Pronunciation for Japanese People

Kenji Kitao

### Abstract

Contrastive linguistics emphasizes the differences between languages. Linguists who study these differences believe that a knowledge of the differences between the phonetic systems of the student's native language and the target language can help predict the difficulties the students will have. In this study, I tested four hypotheses about the difficulties that the differences between English and Japanese would cause a Japanese speaker learning English and about the relationships between pronunciation and general proficiency.

### Introduction

Since the early 1950's, the audio lingual method, which is based on structural linguistics, was emphasized in junior high and senior high school English instruction in Japan so that students would be able to speak English. However, their pronunciation is influenced by the Japanese sound system, which interferes with their learning of English pronunciation. In fact, Lado (1957) and Fries (1945) asserted that the difficulty of pronunciation of a particular phoneme can be predicted, based on the differences between English and their native language.

Sato (1972) did one of the few experimental studies on the difficulty of English phonemes for speakers of Japanese. He tested phonemes in the initial and final positions and found that speakers of Japanese had difficulty with English phonemes that are absent in Japanese.

The purpose of this study is to test the difficulty that speakers of Japanese have with recognition (listening) and production (speaking) of English phonemes in different environments.

## Hypotheses and Research Question

Based on phonetic differences between English and Japanese, I propose the following hypotheses. I will also study the answer to a research question.

### Hypothesis 1

Speakers of Japanese have difficulty comprehending and pronouncing consonant phonemes which are absent in Japanese, particularly phonemes which do not have allophones.

There are twenty-four consonant phonemes in English and fourteen in Japanese. Those which do not have allophones, /l, f, v, θ, ð/, are more difficult than those that do, /ʃ, ʒ, tʃ, dʒ, ŋ/.

### Hypothesis 2

Speakers of Japanese have difficulty comprehending and pronouncing closed syllables, i.e., it is easier for them to comprehend and pronounce consonant phonemes if they occur before vowels, but it is much more difficult if the consonant phoneme occurs before another consonant or a pause.

Japanese is a syllabic language, and English is not. Therefore, Japanese speakers have more difficulty with consonants that occur before other consonants and those that occur before a pause. The phonetic variance of consonant clusters makes it difficult for speakers of Japanese to comprehend and pronounce consonant clusters because, of course, they do not exist in Japanese.

### Hypothesis 3

The ability to comprehend English phonemes and the ability to pronounce them are not correlated.

There does not seem to be a strong connection between comprehension and ability to form a sound with the articulatory organs.

### Hypothesis 4

The correlation between general English proficiency and ability to pronounce English phonemes is high.

This means that people with higher English proficiency can understand and pronounce English phonemes better.

### Research Question

What is the order of difficulty of English consonant phonemes for speakers of Japanese?

## Methods

### Overview

For this study, I developed ten tests (A through J) to test all consonant phonemes in English except /w, j, h/ in the initial position before a vowel, in the middle position before a final consonant and in the final position. Consonant phonemes /w, j, h/ were omitted because they lack consonant clusters in some environments in English, and they are not problem phonemes for speakers of Japanese. Though /ʒ, ŋ/ do not occur in the initial position in English, they are problem phonemes for speakers of Japanese, and so they are included. However, they are not included in the statistical analyses, because of the lack of three positions.

The tests were constructed in pairs, with the first test in each pair using English words and the second test using nonsense words.

I compared the results of the above tests with the results of Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency held at the Intensive English Center on March 10, 1973.

## Materials

I made ten tests. Tests A through D for listening, E through H for pronunciation, and I through J for a combination of the two.

I made the test using 21 English consonants, excluding /w, j, h/, because they lack consonant clusters and are difficult to control for, and they are not difficult for Japanese to understand or pronounce. I tried to control the environment of each phoneme as much as possible. I put those consonants in the following three environments: initial, middle, and final positions. All tested words are one syllable words which have the construction of CVC or CVCC. All tested phonemes were selected using *Pronouncing Dictionary of American English* (Kenyon and Knott, 1953) and *Pronunciation contrasts in English* (Nilsen and Nilsen, 1971).

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| before a vowel | ? V C | (beginning of words) |
| before a consonant | C V ? C | (middle of words) |
| before a pause | C V ? | (end of words) |

Complete control is impossible, because certain clusters never occur in English and my knowledge of vocabulary is limited. For example, /ʒ, ŋ/ do not appear at the beginning of words, but they are difficult for Japanese and therefore are included in the other two positions. However, they were excluded in the comparisons of positions. A summary of the characteristics of the ten tests is shown in Figure 1 (pp. 134-35).

I tried to control the environments as much as possible.

/p, t, k, f, θ/ before /s/
/b, d, g, v, ð, m, n, l, r, ŋ/ before /z/
/s, ʃ, tʃ/ before /t/
/z, dʒ, ʒ/ before /d/

I tried to control vowels in Tests A, C, E, G, and I. I chose words which had the same vowel sounds, if possible. If that was not possible, I chose words with similar vowel sounds.

In Tests B, D, F, H, and J, which involved nonsense words, all vowels were completely controlled.

In Test A, I collected words which make minimal pairs with the test items.

Tests A and B, C and D, E and F, G and H, and I and J are parallel tests using English and non-English words. Their results were contrasted. I used the same tested items in each pair, but word orders were different in Tests B and F, C and E, and D and H.

I tested a total of 59 consonants in tests A, B, and F and 61 consonants in the other tests, though there are fewer than 61 words, because the word which has /ʒ/ cannot have two minimal pairs of words and Test F is parallel to Test B.

An American male recorded tests A, B, C, D, I, and J in the recording room at the University of Kansas on April 10, 1973. He checked all the test items and answer sheets of tests A & B.

## Participants

The participants were eight Japanese students at the Intensive English Center at the University of Kansas and two Japanese students from the regular university program. They were not able to be randomly selected, since there were not many Japanese students. I could not control variables such as sex, age, interest, and length of stay in the United States. However English proficiency was considered, using the results of Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency administered to them on March 10, 1973.

## Administration and Analysis

I administered the listening tests (A - D) between April 17 and 19.

| | |
|---|---|
| April 17 | 8 people |
| 18 | 1 person |
| 19 | 1 person |

Figure 1 Ten Tests Used in the Experiment

| Tests | | Purpose | No. of Words | Procedure |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| LISTENING | A | Test ability to distinguish consonants from other consonants in various environments | 59 | Listening to the tape, choose the best answer out of three. |
| | B | | 59 | same as Test A using nonsense words |
| | C | Test ability to recognize consonants correctly in various environments | 49 | Listening to the tape, spelling out words. |
| | D | | 42 | same with Test C using nonsense words |
| PRONUNCIATION | E | Test ability to pronounce consonants correctly in various environments | 49 | Reading English words and recording them. |
| | F | | 59 | Reading nonsense words and recording them. |
| | G | Test ability to pronounce consonants correctly in various environments without any help from spelling | 61 | Pronouncing English words with translating from Japanese words. |
| | H | | 42 | Reading nonsense words written in IPA. |
| COMBINATION | I | Test ability to recognize consonants correctly in various environments and also to pronounce them correctly | 51 | Listening to the tape and repeating and recording. |
| | J | | 42 | same as Test I using nonsense words |

| Disadvantage | Advantage | Evaluation |
|---|---|---|
| 1 guessing from the answer sheet<br>2 not all good minimal pairs | | Choosing correct consonants |
| not able to avoid all English words | 1 controlling environment<br>2 not guessing from English words | |
| 1 problems with spelling<br>2 difficult to code<br>3 guessing from vocabulary | no help from spelling and pronunciation | Writing correct consonants |
| difficult to spell unknown words | same with Test B | |
| 1 misreading<br>2 pronounce as spelled | | 3 native English speakers' judgments |
| difficult to read unknown words | same with Test B | |
| a little difficult to translate Japanese words | | |
| 1 difficulty with IPA<br>2 guess pronunciation from IPA | same with Test B<br>no distraction by spellings | |
| difficult to judge errors: listening or pronouncing | | |
| | same with Test B | |

I administered pronunciation tests and the combination tests (E through J) from April 17 to 19.

There were no problems with the administration of the listening tests, Tests A, B, C, and D. On the pronunciation tests, Tests E, F, G, and H, translation was a little difficult in Test G. Participants had some difficulty reading the international phonetic alphabet. Spellings of words distracted pronunciation in Tests E and F. The time each subject spent was different in Tests E, F, G, and H. As for combination tests, Tests I and J, students spent a different amount of time for the pronunciation test sections.

I coded the written tests, Tests A, B, C, and D. Recorded tests, Tests E, F, G, H, I, and J, were coded by native speakers of English and specialists of English instruction (Dr. Erazmus, director of the Intensive English Center; Dr. Gregory, assistant director; and Ms. Moore, instructor).

## Results

### Listening tests (A, B, C, D)

The results of listening tests, Tests A, B, C, and D, are summarized in Table 1. The table shows the mean number of correct items for each environment, the standard deviation, and the number of items.

Table 1: Results of Listening Tests (A, B, C, D)

| Tests | Position | Mean | S.D. | No. of Items |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | initial | 8.84 | 1.42 | 19 |
| | middle | 7.74 | 1.94 | 19 |
| | final | 8.21 | 2.15 | 19 |
| | total | 8.26 | 1.89 | 57 |
| B | initial | 8.05 | 2.37 | 19 |
| | middle | 7.68 | 2.43 | 19 |
| | final | 7.74 | 2.54 | 19 |
| | total | 7.82 | 2.41 | 57 |
| C | initial | 8.53 | 2.12 | 19 |
| | middle | 7.21 | 3.01 | 19 |
| | final | 8.32 | 1.97 | 19 |
| | total | 8.02 | 2.44 | 57 |
| D | initial | 7.42 | 3.16 | 19 |
| | middle | 7.26 | 3.07 | 19 |
| | final | 7.32 | 3.13 | 19 |
| | total | 7.33 | 3.07 | 57 |

In all cases, the results indicate that phonemes in the middle position were most difficult to comprehend and those in the final position were next most difficult. Those in the initial position were easiest. Scores on multiple-choice tests are higher than those in dictation tests, and also those with English words are higher than those with nonsense words. This indicates that recognition was easier than production, and participants used their knowledge of English words to guess sounds.

The correlations among tests by Spearman Rank Order Correlation Coefficient show that correlations of the initial positions are highest, next is the final positions and the middle positions are lowest. This indicates that students have learned the phonemes of the initial positions best and of the middle position the least.

Based on the results of the four tests, from the point of view of comprehension, the order of the difficulty of English phonemes for speakers of Japanese was: /ð, ʒ, v, b, θ, l, r, f, ŋ, z, n, s, m, d, dʒ, p, tʃ, g, k, ʃ, t/. Participants had particular difficulty with the five absent phonemes /ð, θ, v, l, f/ and allophones /ʒ, ŋ/. They did not have trouble with the allophones /dʒ, tʃ, ʃ/. The phonemes /dʒ, ʒ/ show free variation and there is the tendency for speakers of Japanese to substitute /dʒ/ for /ʒ/, indicating that they have particular trouble with the /ʒ/ sound. Phonemes /n, ŋ/ also have free variation and students had trouble discriminating between them. They had trouble with /b/, and this may be because they confused it with /v/ or because they seldom use /b/ in Japanese.

The correlation with those four tests and Michigan Test of English Proficiency (vocabulary, grammar, and reading) for the eight students from the Intensive English Center was .44, and that between those tests and aural comprehension of Michigan Test is .56. Neither correlation was significant at the .05 level (df = 7), but considering the small number of participants, obtaining significant correlations would be difficult. This result indicates that there was no relationship between scores on the proficiency test and the aural comprehension test and the result of this pronunciation test.

## Pronunciation Tests (E, F, G, H)

The correlations among three coders were low, less than .80 in most cases, and frequently much lower. There are at least three possible reasons for this. One problem may have been that they used different cassette tape recorders. Another possible problem is that the three coders were not trained together and therefore they may have been using slightly different criteria. Finally because the tests were long, it may have been difficult for the coders to be consistent in their criteria. Thus I used the mean score of the three graders for analysis.

Test F had some problems. /θ/ and /ð/ are indistinguishable before vowels. /k, v, n/ do not occur before consonants in English. Therefore, these were missing from the test.

The results of pronouncing tests, Tests E, F, G, and H, are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2: Results of Pronunciation Tests (E, F, G, H)

| Tests | Position | Mean | S.D. | Nos. of Items |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| E | initial | 9.26 | 0.83 | 19 |
| | middle | 7.73 | 2.16 | 19 |
| | final | 8.64 | 1.31 | 19 |
| | total | 8.54 | 1.64 | 57 |
| F | initial | 9.16 | 1.11 | 17 |
| | middle | 7.92 | 2.25 | 17 |
| | final | 8.01 | 1.87 | 19 |
| | total | 8.35 | 1.86 | 53 |
| G | initial | 8.53 | 1.61 | 19 |
| | middle | 8.61 | 1.42 | 19 |
| | final | 8.71 | 1.42 | 19 |
| | total | 8.61 | 1.46 | 57 |
| H | initial | 8.88 | 1.25 | 19 |
| | middle | 7.88 | 2.10 | 19 |
| | final | 8.39 | 1.82 | 19 |
| | total | 8.39 | 1.78 | 57 |

Participants received the lowest scores for consonants in the middle position, and the highest scores for consonants in the initial position on Tests E, F, and H. Though Test G has the opposite results, administration of this test was least reliable. The participants had the most difficulty in pronouncing clusters, then final phonemes. Initial phonemes were easiest to pronounce.

The participants could pronounce English words better than nonsense words.

The correlations were highest for consonants in the initial (before vowels), in the final position and in the middle (before consonants). The initial position was most stable in listening and pronunciation. However the other two positions were reversed.

Based on the results of the four tests, from the point of view of pronunciation, the order of the difficulty of English phonemes for speakers of Japanese was: /ʒ, ð, z, ŋ, θ, l, ʃ, v, tʃ, r, b, dʒ, g, d, s, f, n, m, t, p, k/. The participants had difficulty with four of the five absent phonemes (/f/ was not difficult) and four of the five allophones (/dʒ/ was not difficult). The phoneme /z/ was a problem, and the participants seemed to confuse /z/ and /ʒ/. It seems strange that /f/ was not particularly difficult. The phoneme /n/ was not a problem but /ŋ/ was. This indicates that speakers of Japanese substitute /n/ for /ŋ/, because they have free variation in Japanese.

The correlation between the results of these four tests and aural comprehension on the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency is .35 and that between four tests and the average scores of Michigan Test (vocabulary, grammar, and reading) is .35. Neither correlation was significant at the .05 level (df = 7). This means that the students with high proficiency in aural comprehension or written English cannot necessarily pronounce English well. However, the two regular students at the University of Kansas obtained higher scores than students at the Intensive English Center.

The correlations between the parallel tests of listening and pronouncing were not significant. This indicates that students who can discriminate between consonants cannot necessarily pronounce them well.

## Combination Tests (I & J)

The results of the combination tests, Tests I and J, are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3: Results of Combination Tests (I, J)

| Tests | Position | Mean | S.D. | Nos. of Items |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| I | initial | 8.51 | 1.53 | 19 |
| | middle | 8.34 | 1.57 | 19 |
| | final | 8.72 | 1.11 | 19 |
| | total | 8.52 | 1.40 | 57 |
| J | initial | 8.29 | 2.07 | 19 |
| | middle | 7.58 | 2.20 | 19 |
| | final | 7.74 | 1.79 | 18 |
| | total | 7.88 | 2.02 | 56 |

The results of both tests indicate that phonemes in the middle position are most difficult to comprehend and pronounce, those in the final position are next and those in the initial position are easiest.

The participants had less trouble with English words than with nonsense words. This indicates that their knowledge of English vocabulary may be helpful to them.

The correlation of the initial position between two tests was .81 (df = 9; $p < .05$). The correlation between consonants in the middle position was .34, and the correlation between those in the final position was .40, neither of which was significant at the .05 level. The participants had trouble comprehending and pronouncing consonant phonemes before consonants or pauses.

Based on the total results of the two tests, combining pronunciation and comprehension, the order of the difficulty of English phonemes for speakers of Japanese was: /ð, ʒ, θ, v, ŋ, l, dʒ, g, z, r, b, tʃ, ʃ, f, p, d, m, t, s, k, n/. The participants had trouble with all five of the absent phonemes except /f/, but they did not have any trouble with allophones /tʃ, ʃ/. They had much trouble with /ʒ/, as in the listening and pronunciation tests. They had much trouble with

/z, r, b/ even though such phonemes are used in Japanese. It may be difficult to distinguish /z/ and /ð/, /r/ and /l/, and /b/ and /v/.

The correlation between eight students' results of aural comprehension on the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency and the results of Tests I and J is -.33. The correlation between the average score on the Michigan Test and the results of Tests I and J is .17. Neither of these was significant at the .05 level (df = 7), though again the small number of participants made it difficult to attain significant results. These results indicate that participants who got high scores on those two tests cannot necessarily comprehend or pronounce phonemes well.

I could not find significant correlations among the three types of tests.

## Conclusion

Through these tests, I found that the four absent consonant phonemes /ð, v, θ, l/ cause difficulties for speakers of Japanese, and two allophones /ʒ, ŋ/ cause difficulties as well. /z, r/ are present in Japanese, but they are rather difficult for speakers of Japanese speaking English. /p, t, k, d, s, m, n/ are easy for speakers of Japanese. This partly confirms Hypothesis 1.

Participants consistently scored lowest on the consonant phonemes in the middle position before another consonant (with the exception of Test G, which was unreliable), indicating that consonants were most difficult to comprehend and produce before another consonant. Scores were second lowest in the final position. This confirms Hypothesis 2.

The correlations between listening tests and pronunciation tests were not significant at the .05 level. Hypothesis 3 was supported.

The correlations between these pronunciation and comprehension tests and the other tests of English proficiency were not significant at the .05 level. Hypothesis 4 was not supported.

In order to improve comprehension and pronunciation of English, students have to strengthen their training with minimal pairs of words, and they should have training in pronouncing consonant phonemes before consonants. Problem phonemes should be particularly emphasized. Based on the fact that participants scored better on English words than nonsense words, it would also be helpful to increase students' vocabulary or teach some rules of English phonology.

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# III. Teaching Reading

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# 7. Difficulties Japanese Have in Reading English

Kenji Kitao
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**Abstract**

In this paper, the problems encountered by native Japanese-speakers in reading English as a second language are examined, based on literature on the subject as well as firsthand experiences in teaching English, developing reading materials, and conducting research projects. The discussion focuses on five major areas: the reading process, the fact that reading passages in English textbooks are usually not written for Japanese students and the effect this has on their reading, why written texts are more difficult than spoken texts, major problems encountered by the Japanese in reading English texts, and some cultural and social barriers to reading English. Ten suggestions are made for improving Japanese college-level English reading instruction, including choosing appropriate texts, avoiding exercises requiring students to replace English words with Japanese, providing background information, encouraging faster reading, giving students a purpose each time they read, teaching about English discourse organization, practicing basic reading skills, using activities based on real experiences, providing opportunities for discussion, and encouraging further cultural or topical study.

## Introduction

Many Japanese people who have studied English believe that they can read English well, even though they cannot speak it. Since so many people believe it, it has become an axiom. But is it really true that Japanese can read English well? Matsumura (1984) argues that it is not. He maintains that most Japanese can neither speak nor read English well.

In this paper, we will discuss the process of reading in general and then consider how Japanese students usually read English. We will also discuss the problems that Japanese have in reading and make some recommendations for solving some of these problems in reading classes in Japan.

## Reading

Reading has been defined as "the meaningful interpretation of written or printed verbal symbols" (Harris and Sipay, 1975: 5). In other words, reading is decoding written symbols and reconstructing the world the writer had in mind. However, that is difficult to do, and readers always understand both more and less than the writer intended, even in their native language (Ortega y Gasset, 1959).

Goodman (1967) characterized reading as a psycholinguistic guessing game. Meaning does not come from the printed letters alone. It involves an interaction between thought and language. Rather than reading each individual word, readers select the fewest, most productive cues from the printed page that are necessary to produce guesses and confirm them. They make predictions about what will come next, and check these predictions. Smith, Goodman and Meredith (1970) emphasize that reading is an active process rather than a passive, receptive one. Following that, Smith (1973) claimed that reading is not even primarily a visual process. Nonvisual information that comes from the brain is more important in reading than what appears on the printed page. Nonvisual information includes all the things the reader already knows about reading, grammar, syntax, semantics, context, and the world in general. Reading is therefore not the passive reception of meaning from the text. It is an active process, making use of the interaction between the reader's knowledge and the text.

### Reading and Schema Theory

The active role that the reader's background information plays in reading comprehension has come to be widely recognized only relatively recently. The traditional view of reading is that meaning resides in the text to be comprehended, not in the reader doing the comprehending. If a reader cannot comprehend a text, it is considered to be because of a deficiency in his/her understanding of the words, grammatical forms, anaphoric cohesive ties, etc., in the text (Carrell, 1984). However, as Goodman (1967) has pointed out in his model, reading is a "psycholinguistic guessing game" in which the reader uses the graphic display encoded by the writer to reconstruct the message. According to Goodman's model, the reader does not need to use all the textual cues. Instead, the reader makes predictions and checks them against the text. The better able the reader is to make correct predictions, the less it is necessary for him/her to check the text. Therefore, background information, which allows the reader to make more correct predictions, is an important factor in reading comprehension.

The role that background information plays in comprehension has been formalized in schema theory. Schemata are previously acquired knowledge structures. They are made up of "slots" or "placeholders" for each component (den Uyl and van Oostendorp, 1980). Schemata include information about constraints on what can fill a particular slot, including default values to be used if the slot is not filled (Anderson, 1978), what the relationships are among the slots (Graesser, Woll, Kowalski, and Smith, 1980), and the network of associations that a concept has (Pearson and Spiro, 1982). Schemata tell us what is essential, expected and possible in a certain situation (van Dijk, 1977). They are arranged hierarchically from the most general to the most specific information.

Eating at a restaurant is a simple example of the use of schemata. For an American, a restaurant schema would include the information that there must be a server; that the server can be male or female; that the server will most likely wear a uniform of some sort; that there must be a menu; that the menu must have a list of the dishes that are available; that the menu will most likely include prices. Not listing prices on the menu is associated with expensive restaurants. Assuming the chef in an expensive restaurant is male would be an example of a default value for the gender of the chef.

Van Dijk (1977) describes two types of processing: top-down processing, in which general predictions are made about the situation and checked against incoming data, and bottom-up processing, which takes place when the incoming data is perceived first and used to make inferences about the general situation. Kasper (1984) found that, in their native language, readers or listeners activated schema about the general situation first, checked it against the input (i.e., printed or spoken words) and then revised incorrectly activated schemata or activated more specific schemata based on the input. This might be described as interactive processing, since it makes use of the interaction between higher and lower levels of information. In contrast, non-native speakers tend to use bottom-up processing. They use the words and sentences themselves as the basis for comprehension rather than an understanding of the overall context (Kasper, 1984).

Carrell (1984) listed ways in which a reader could miscomprehend or not comprehend because of ways that schemata interact with the text. She listed 1) no existing schema (the text assumes background knowledge that the reader does not possess), 2) naive schema (insufficiently developed schema), 3) poor text (not enough cues to the appropriate schema), 4) multiple schemata appropriate (more than one interpretation of the text possible, and the reader does not know which one to choose), and 5) schema intrusion (reader chooses an inappropriate schema).

**Associations**

As mentioned above, schemata include associations. Associations are used by a writer to encode a concept without having to explain the entire concept explicitly. The reader, if he/she is to decode the concept correctly, must use the same associations to fill in information that the writer did not include explicitly. However, a non-native reader (or even a native reader from a different culture or subculture) might not understand the associations that the writer is depending on and therefore would not fully understand the writer's meaning.

Kunihiro (1973) discussed the structure of associations. He divided association into two main categories: word association, which links stimulus-response words, and cultural association, which links a word with its cultural connotation. Cultural association is most important for reading.

Cultural association is of two types. One is sentence association. Through this, native speakers may be able to guess a writer's age, sex, social class, and occupation from the text. The other is indicative association, which is related to history, literature, legend, custom, etc.

## Difficulty of Written Texts

Reading may seem easier than oral communication, because the reader can read the text a number of times, if necessary, and because non-native speakers can translate a written text into their native language, something they don't have an opportunity to do in conversation. However, this is not necessarily true. Reading can be more difficult than listening for both native and non-native speakers. Reading may not provide as much about the situational context as a conversation does. The broader context of a written text may not be as clear to the reader. In addition, speakers use nonlinguistic devices such as stress, intonation, rate of speech, gestures, facial expression, and distance to convey meaning and emotion. Another difficulty for reading is that it is one-way communication. If readers do not understand the text, they cannot ask the writer questions. If the text does not compensate for this loss of information, the writer's intended meaning may not be clear to the readers (Ortega y Gasset, 1959).

Moreover, written texts are denser than spoken language. Writers polish their writing. They omit some redundant and unnecessary information. They use a variety of different words to express the same meaning. Writers generally use more complex sentences than speakers. These factors make written texts generally more difficult than spoken messages (Bowen, Madsen and Hilferty, 1985).

English paragraphs are different from Japanese ones (Toyama, 1977). English paragraphs should have one unifying main idea. They are generally more clearly organized than Japanese paragraphs. Sakuma (1983) reports that American college students could reconstruct paragraphs from an unindented editorial in *The New York Times* much better than Japanese college students could from a Japanese language editorial of *Asahi Shinbun*, one of the major national newspapers in Japan.

## Good and Poor Readers

A number of studies have been done on the differences between good and poor readers. The results of these studies give insight into what readers need to be able to do.

Good readers reading in their native language always monitor their comprehension while they are reading, using their knowledge, experience, and syntactic and semantic cues. MacKinon and Waller (1981) report that good seventh grade readers of English correct 85% of the grammatical errors they make while they read aloud, while poor readers could correct only 42%. Clay and Imlach (1971) report that only one quarter of poor readers could use cues between clauses and sentences. Isakson and Miller (1976) report that good readers stopped when they found irrelevant verbs in passages but poor readers did not.

Poor readers do not use contexts well in reading. Potter (1982) argues that four factors are important in the use of contexts. They are decoding skills and grammatical, semantic, and background knowledge. He also divides contexts into two types: preceding and succeeding contexts. Poor readers do not make use of succeeding context. There are several reports that poor readers understand implicit meanings very poorly (Ryan, 1981). Oakhill (1984) reports that both good and poor readers are equally good at imagining the meaning of a passage using the words in the text. However, using implied cues, there were significant differences.

Poor readers do not use different strategies when they are reading for different purposes. For them, all reading is the same. Even if the purpose of reading to find a certain piece of information, they still read all the whole passage, trying to understand unimportant parts as well as important information (Eamon, 1978-1979).

## How Japanese Students Read English

Most Japanese students use an English-Japanese dictionary when they read English. When they find an unfamiliar word, they look it up and write down the first translation of that word below the English word. They do not consider whether that translation fits the context. They go on reading until they find another unfamiliar word. They "read" by replacing all English words with Japanese words one by one. In our experience, even when doing this, not many of them pay attention to the meaning. Even if the meanings of Japanese sentences they make do not make sense, the students may not think anything is wrong. They put the same amount of importance on each word and try to understand a sentence using their knowledge of grammar. When asked to explain the main idea of a passage, some students have answered that they could not explain it but they could translate it. For many Japanese students, reading English is not necessarily related to comprehension.

It is our experience that students do not usually pay attention to how the sentences in a passage are related, how ideas are organized, what the overall idea of the passage is, etc. The maximum unit they attend to is a sentence. Most of them do not understand the concept of the English paragraph or how English paragraphs are organized. They do not pay attention to paragraphs while reading.

## Japanese Students' Problems in Reading English

### General Findings

From a number of studies (Kitao and Miyamoto, 1982; Kitao and Miyamoto, 1983; Kitao and Yoshida, 1985; Kitao, Kitao, Yoshida and Yoshida, 1985; S. Yoshida, 1985; Kitao, Yoshida and Yoshida, 1986; Yoshida and Kitao, 1986) over a period of five years involving more than 2,500 Japanese college students in more than ten different colleges, it was concluded that:

1) Japanese college students could read an essay better than the other four literary forms (a newspaper article, a poem, directions, and a dialogue) that were researched.
2) They understood the other literary forms, but it took them longer.
3) They read very slowly. Generally, students who read faster had higher comprehension scores.
4) Students' vocabulary was poor.
5) Over the course of an academic year, students could improve their reading comprehension and their ability to anticipate and relate the ideas in the text if they were taught to read using a method that avoided translation.

## Reading Speed

Yoshida & Kitao (1986) found that Japanese college students could read only 105 words per minute in a situation when they were asked to read fast, and when they did read at that rate, their comprehension was only 54%. The researchers speculated that many students believed that if they read slowly, they could answer comprehension questions better. This is a myth. In fact, if a reader reads too slowly, it is more difficult to relate the ideas in a passage, and it is more difficult to understand the passage. Short-term memory does not retain information for long, and it is impossible to relate previous information with new information if the reader reads too slowly (Smith, 1982). Thus, reading slowly hinders comprehension.

There are many reasons Japanese people read English passages slowly. First of all, letters of the Roman alphabet are not easy for Japanese readers to recognize. They are used to reading Chinese characters and it is easier for them to visually identify Chinese characters than combinations of letters of the alphabet. If they pay close attention to the individual words, their eye span is narrower and they cannot grasp whole phrases. Japanese tend to see one word at a time. Native English speakers can recognize a word without considering the combination of letters (Weaver, 1980). If they are given non-English words or unnatural combinations of letters, they cannot recognize them. Native speakers also recognize words in familiar situations better than in unfamiliar situations (Reid, 1958). This also means that they recognize a group of words with one fixation of the eye, and theoretically, they can process four or five words at a time (Weaver, 1980).

Second, the Japanese language is usually read vertically. Japanese readers are not used to reading left to right. H. Yoshida (1985) found that Japanese can read faster if words or phrases are placed vertically on a computer screen.

Third, Japanese have more frequent regressions when they read in

English, that is, they go back and read the same words or phrases again while they are reading a passage (Takahashi and Takanashi, 1984). The reason Japanese readers do this is thought to be that they cannot relate the pieces of information they have read, and they cannot keep enough information in their short-term memory.

Fourth, English sentences have a word order different from Japanese, and it takes more time for Japanese readers to understand it. Most Japanese students tend to replace English words with Japanese words and make Japanese sentences before they try to understand. That takes time, and readers lose the flow of the passage (Kitao, 1979).

Fifth, if Japanese readers find a word they do not know, they stop there automatically and consult with an English-Japanese dictionary. They have not had the training to guess what the meaning of that word is in the context or to decide whether understanding that word is important. They do not try to guess the meaning in the context. In their native language, readers very rarely use dictionaries; they can often figure out the meaning of an unknown word from the context if they go on reading, or at least decide that the word is unimportant. However, Japanese readers of English are more likely to stop reading and worry about that new word, which slows down their reading.

## Vocabulary

Most Japanese students have learned less than 3,000 English words by the time they graduate from high school. (This number includes all the forms of the same word counted as separate words, e.g., go, went, and gone are counted as three words. It may include only one meaning for each word, even though most common words have many meanings) (Kitao, Kitao, Nozawa, and Yamamoto, 1985). Also, some of the words may be archaic or obscure and many words in common or daily use are not included (Kitao and Kitao, 1985). If a passage has more than five percent new words, it is difficult for students to understand (Kitao, Broderick, Fujiwara, Kitao, and Sackett, 1985). In texts written for native English speakers, which are often used in college reading classes in Japan, more than 5% of the words are new to most Japanese readers.

Another problem concerning vocabulary is that Japanese do not learn the relationships among words. They do not know antonyms or synonyms or words with similar meaning (Kitao, Broderick, Fujiwara, Kitao, and Sackett, 1985). Thus, in reading a text, they often do not realize that two words have the same meaning or that two words are opposites. Without understanding the relationships among words, it is hard to understand the passage.

### Attention to Individual Words

Native speakers pay attention to clauses rather than individual words, the clause being the minimum unit of meaning. However, Japanese readers tend to pay equal attention to each individual word (H. Yoshida, 1985). Not many of them seem to understand which words are important and which are not. The same is true of sentences. Readers tend to try to understand each sentence independently without understanding the relationships among them or which sentence is most important.

### Literal Meaning and Implication

To understand a passage, it is often necessary to understand not only the literal meaning of the text but what it implies. This is difficult for Japanese readers. Japanese readers may not grasp the implications and may just pass them by. Knowledge of grammar helps readers to understand sentences, but this is not enough to understand the full meaning that the writer intended.

Many Japanese students believe that if they understand all the parts of a passage, they can understand the whole. They try to understand each word and accumulate the meanings of words, sentences and then understand the passage. They seldom anticipate the whole meaning first and then test their hypothesis, as good readers do in their native language.

Even though the Japanese know much more about the United States than they do about other countries, their knowledge is limited. They do not know much about the daily life, school life, ways of thinking, patterns of discourse, etc., of Americans — that is, they do not share the schemata that Americans do. Therefore, when Japanese people encounter new situations in reading, they have difficulty understanding them. This is one of the biggest barriers to full communication. If people do not share the same experiences or background knowledge, the efficiency of their communication is limited.

There are many aspects of cultural and social competence. English language and communication using the English language are deeply embedded in English-speaking people's cultures and societies. Japanese people who do not have much cultural and social competence in English-speaking cultures may not understand certain meanings or may misunderstand because they interpret meanings using their own cultural and social assumptions.

When reading English written by and intended for native speakers of English (authentic English), Japanese readers are often in the position of a person overhearing a conversation about which he/she knows little or nothing. Even if the listener understands the meanings of all the words and all the grammatical structures, he/she may not understand the conversation. The reason is that the speakers are not considering the person who overhears the conversation. References that the intended listener understands may not be clear to an unintended listener. The same problem occurs when Japanese read many texts written in English. A reader who is not a native English speaker may not understand references or inferences intended for native English speakers.

The schemata and associations necessary to understand authentic English texts are not necessarily familiar to Japanese. Writers writing for native English speakers in general or a specific group of native English speakers include information relevant to the reader, but they may not include enough information for Japanese people. Writers provide the information that is necessary for their audience. They refer to previous texts or current events which intended readers already know, without having to explain their significance in detail. They convey cultural and social meanings without explanations. Since Japanese people lack much of the cultural and social information which native speakers of English, or a specific group of native English speakers, share, there is a big gap between Japanese and native speakers' nonvisual information.

Non-native readers reading authentic English can potentially miscomprehend or not comprehend due to any of the following factors, listed by Carrell (1984). The reader might not have an existing schema – that is, might not have the background knowledge that the writer assumes. The reader's schema might not be sufficiently developed to fully comprehend the text. The text may not contain enough cues to allow the non-native reader to activate an appropriate schema (even though it is sufficient for a native reader). Multiple schema might be appropriate, but the non-native reader may not be able to make use of grammatical or semantic information to choose among the possible interpretations. Lastly, the reader may choose an inappropriate schema. Again, non-native readers are less able to make use of grammatical, semantic, and other information that would allow them to choose the appropriate schema.

### Development of paragraphs

Kaplan's (1966) analysis shows clear differences in development of paragraphs in different language groups. He characterizes the development of English paragraphs as being in a straight line and paragraphs written in Oriental languages as being developed in a spiral. These results may, to some extent, represent the ethnocentric biases of the researcher, but they show, at least, that patterns of expressing ideas are different. Japanese readers might find it difficult to follow the logic of English. Opinions or judgments are based on English-speaking people's values. Without understanding them, it is very difficult to understand the text.

## Improving the Teaching of Reading in English

This discussion, and our experience teaching English reading, prompts some recommendations about how the teaching of reading at the college level in English to Japanese readers might be improved.

First, appropriate levels of reading texts should be chosen for Japanese college students. They should be slightly above students' English proficiency. Krashen and Terrell (1984) argue that input should be at an i + 1 level (slightly above the current level of proficiency) and comprehensible. Only a few new language items should be added to the old ones. According to Kitao and Kitao (1982), readings should not include too many unknown words or much slang or dialect or too many technical terms, idioms, etc. New vocabulary should be kept to less than five percent of the total words in the text and syntax should not be too complex. The content should include some cultural information but should not be heavily culturally oriented, because students may lack the schemata necessary to comprehend. The content should be understandable, meaningful, interesting and new to students. Textbooks should have some visual materials and exercises to help students understand what they are reading. Passages should be written for non-native speakers, at least initially, and should have correct and natural English.

Second, textbooks should not use exercises that involve replacing English words with Japanese words. Students need to read English without using Japanese; this makes it easier to follow logic in English and understand associations in English. No matter how well we choose Japanese words to translate English words into, they have different meanings and associations, and Japanese words distort any cultural meanings of words or the passage. Also, replacing words takes much time and slows reading down greatly.

Third, before students read, teachers should do something to prepare the students for the reading. Teachers might explain the background or something about the text, or discuss the topic. Students can be asked about what they already know about that topic. If the text is very difficult, students can be given a summary or some clues to help them understand the text. They can read a summary of the passage written in easy English first. This helps students activate their knowledge about the subject and anticipate the content of the text. Giving students a summary in advance worked very well in listening practice (Arima, Kitao, Kitao, and Yoshioka, 1984) and giving them an easier version of a reading has also worked well (personal communication, Okada, T., 1980).

Carrell (1984) made some suggestions for activating students' schemata in order to improve their reading comprehension. She suggested that background material could be provided in the forms of lectures, movies, slides, demonstrations, class discussions, predictions about the text, etc. These activities, which Carrell states are best used in varying combinations, provide background knowledge that help students comprehend the material. For students with vocabulary difficulties, Carrell recommended introducing vocabulary before the reading of the text. However, simply providing lists of words and definitions does not seem to help as much as looking at the words in terms of its associations (e.g., antonyms, synonyms, attributes, personal experiences, etc.) (Langer, 1981).

Hudson (1982) compared three types of prereading activities. He found that a series of activities that included looking at and discussing pictures related to the text and privately making predictions about the content of the text improved the comprehension of students of beginning and intermediate reading proficiency.

Langer (1981) proposed a prereading plan that would help teachers identify what students know about a topic. This makes teachers better aware of what background knowledge students might be lacking, as well as activating schemata and helping students anticipate the content of the reading. The plan involves three steps: 1) initial associations with the concept (ask students for anything that comes to mind when they hear the key concept), 2) reflections on the initial associations (ask students what made them think of particular associations in the first step, for the purpose of revising, rejecting, integrating, etc., the associations), and 3) reformulation of knowledge (ask students for new ideas on the concept, based on the discussion in the first two steps).

Fourth, students should be encouraged to read faster, for example, by keeping track of their reading speed. Students will improve not only reading speed but also reading comprehension (Kitao and Miyamoto, 1982; Kitao and Miyamoto, 1983; Kitao and Yoshida, 1985; Kitao, Kitao, Yoshida and Yoshida, 1985; Kitao, Yoshida and Yoshida, 1986; Yoshida and Kitao, 1986).

Fifth, students should have a purpose for reading each time they read, whether it is looking for a particular piece of information or getting the main idea of the text. One technique is to give students questions before reading as well as directions on how to read the text.

Sixth, students should be taught about the organization of English passages, including how to find the main idea and its supporting details, and how sentences and paragraphs are connected and organized. Students should do exercises to outline or summarize the passages, put main concepts in order, draw diagrams, etc. It is also helpful to teach students about the common rhetorical patterns of English, such as classification, problem-solution, cause and effect, etc. (Carrell, 1985).

Seventh, teachers should teach some basic reading techniques, such as skimming, scanning, finding topic sentences in each paragraph and the supporting details and examples.

Eighth, teachers should have students do activities that involve real experiences. In the classroom, activities are often very artificial. However, if there is a real purpose for reading because there is an opportunity for students to do something using information they read, it is real experience and students enjoy this type of activity. One activity that our students have particularly enjoyed is cooking from recipes that they read in English. If doing outside activities is not practical, students can do skits or role plays, if appropriate to the text.

Ninth, students should have the opportunity to discuss the text and exchange ideas about it, including giving their own opinions on an issue or comparing the situation described in the text with a similar situation in Japan. This gives students an opportunity to relate their knowledge and previous experience with the text.

Tenth, students can study more about the topic or cultural information provided in the text. If they know more about English-speaking cultures and societies, they can understand English texts better.

## Conclusion

We have discussed the process of reading and the difficulties that Japanese students have in reading English, based on previous studies and on our experiences in teaching English and developing reading materials. Based on that discussion, we made ten suggestions about what could be done in Japanese college English reading classes to improve the situation.

These recommendations suggest important research directions in English language teaching. How can students be taught to deal with unknown elements in a reading text? What types of prereading preparation is most effective? How can the organization of English paragraphs and texts be taught most effectively? What are the effects of having real experiences or role playing associated with reading texts? What types of experiences are best? What types of background and cultural information is necessary for various types of reading? How can these schemata best be developed? Can students be taught to be more sensitive to cues that help them choose among various schemata? How can schemata that students already have be activated?

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# 8. Japanese College Students' English Reading Ability

Kenji Kitao

## Abstract

English is a subject that is emphasized in Japanese education, and English reading is the most emphasized skill. Still, it is not clear how well Japanese read English and what type of problems they have. In this paper, I have summarized six studies of the reading ability of Japanese students. In these studies I have looked at the ability of Japanese students to read various literary forms and the problems that Japanese readers have with each one of them. I have also looked at the types of questions students have difficulty with at different levels of reading proficiency. Based on the results of these studies, I have drawn conclusions about the problems Japanese students have reading English and made recommendations for the teaching of reading to Japanese students.

## Introduction

English has been emphasized in colleges in Japan, and of the four skills, reading has been the major skill taught in college English courses. Thus, there are many college English reading textbooks. English reading textbooks should be chosen on the basis of the purpose of the class, interests of the students, and students' English proficiency levels. However, the goals of college English courses are usually not specified, and many teachers are not sure what linguistic content should be taught. It is also not clear that how well college students can actually read English. The College Reading Materials

Research Project[1], partially funded by Japan Association of Language Teachers (JALT) research grants in 1980 and 1981, was formed to try to find out how well college students can read English and what their problems are in reading English in order to develop suitable reading materials for college students.

In this paper, I am going to summarize the results of five studies[2] related to this project on the English reading comprehension and reading speed of Japanese college students. These were extensive studies which involved a total of over 2500 students. I will report on these studies and discuss the implications of their results.

## The First Study

### Development of the Tests

In order to investigate college students' English reading proficiency, two parallel tests were developed by the College Reading Materials Research Project. They were called JALT English Reading Test: Form A and C. Each form had five sections: a dialogue, directions, a newspaper article, an essay, and a poem. There were five or ten multiple choice or short answer questions in each section and each section was worth twenty points, that is, 100 points in total. Each section had 200-500 words including questions. Form C had more words and more complicated passages, and it was more difficult. Vocabulary used in the test was limited to vocabulary that students should have learned or vocabulary that can be understood from the context.

### Procedures

These tests were given to more than five hundred college students in four colleges and more than one hundred high school students at one high school. Form A was given in April, 1980, and Form C, in September, 1980. Ten minutes were allowed in each section for Form A, and fifteen minutes for Form C. The test makers made model answers, and each teacher graded his/her students.

### Results

The mean score on Form A by college students was 68.6 and Form C was 59.2, a difference of 9.4 points. The mean score for high school students was 62.1 on Form A and 54.4 on Form C, a difference of about eight and about 5 points lower than the scores of the college students. The curve is almost the same. Since most students finished all questions in each section, the time allocated for each section was sufficient.

In Form A, the highest average on the individual sections was for the directions, with more than 90% correct, followed by the dialogue, essay, newspaper, and poem, which was less than 40%. In Form C, the mean score on the essay was the highest, followed closely by the newspaper article, then the poem, directions and the dialogue. High school students' scores were about one point lower, except on the essay, which were four points lower on Form A.

The time required depended not only on the number of words in that section, but the number of questions and their difficulties. The poem was shortest and had only five questions, and students finished it most quickly. They read an essay faster than a dialogue, a newspaper article, and directions. English majors read faster than other students.

### Revised Tests

**General results.** In order to do better analyses, we revised Forms A and C slightly to make Forms E and F, switching the poems in between Form A and Form C and making small changes in the reading passages and questions. This time, eleven classes at three colleges and three classes at one high school took Forms E and F in April 1981 and before or after summer vacation in 1981 and Form E only before or after winter vacation. We analyzed the results only for students who took both tests, and eliminated some unreliable results, for a total of 126 high school students and 465 college students.

The mean score for college students was 57.78 on Form E and 51.73 on Form F. The mean score for high school students was 55.63 on Form E and 37.22 on Form F. All fourteen classes earned higher scores on Form E than Form F. Among the college classes, mean scores varied a great deal. The highest class mean on Form E, for example, was 74.96 and the lowest was 37.12. The correlation between those tests is .69; and between the directions, .41; the dialogues, .43; essays, .26; newspapers, .16; and poems, .33. Essays have the highest scores, and poems have the second lowest scores in both tests. Dialogues and newspapers have different difficulty levels. Correlations between the total scores and those on the individual sections ranged from .60 to .74.

The correlations between the test scores and total time spent for the tests are -.51 for Form E and -.44 for Form F. For the individual sections, correlations ranged from -.23 to -.49.

**Scores of upper and lower groups**. We chose 72 students who scored 66 or above on Form E and 60 or above on Form F (upper group) and 72 students who scored 52 or below on Form E and 44 or below on Form F (lower group) in order to clarify the students' problems.

The lower group's total score was 43% of the upper group on Form E and 44% on Form F. For the upper group, the score on the essay was highest. In Form E, the order from essay is directions, dialogue, newspaper, and poem. In Form F, the order of the directions and dialogue was reversed, as was the newspaper and poem. The lower group's order on Form E is newspaper, poem, essay, directions and dialogue and in Form F, essay, dialogue, directions, newspaper, and poem. The upper group was similar to the group as a whole, but the lower group was very different. The lower group obtained 67% of the upper group scores on the newspaper article on Form E and 57% on the essay, 54% on the newspaper article, and

50% on the poem in Form F. The lower group scored less than 50% of the upper group on all other sections.

**Times of upper and lower groups**. In all sections of the two tests, the upper group spent less time than the lower group. The upper group spent 72-93% of the maximum time allowed, and the lower group, 87-99%. The correlation between the total time and total score was -.46 for the upper group on Form E and -.35 on Form F for the upper group. For the lower group, the correlations were -.28 and -.14 respectively.

The mean score on Form E when it was administered in April 1981 was 61.71 and at the time of the winter vacation was 75.89, an increase of 23%. The mean length of time spent on the first test was 35 minutes 29 seconds, and the second test, 29 minutes 48 seconds, so that the time on the second test was 84% of the time on the first test. The correlations of the scores are .50 and the time, .67.

**Changes in the upper and lower groups**. The scores of the upper 30% of the students (54 students) and the lower 30% (54 students) were analyzed. The upper group increased 6%, and the lower group increased 52%. The time of the upper group decreased to 76% of the allotted time, and the lower group to 89%. The reading speed of the upper group improved more than that of the lower group.

## Evaluation of the Results

**Form E & Form F**. The two tests were parallel, and F was more difficult than E. The reading ability of college students varies a great deal according to colleges, years, and majors. Freshman linguistics and law majors obtained higher scores in Form E than English major freshmen, but that was reversed on Form F. This means that the English majors increased their reading ability in the first semester.

The results of the second year testing indicated that the students understood essays best and poems least and that college students did much better than high school students on essays. The students read essays fastest and directions and newspaper articles most slowly.

Students with lower scores guessed at answers a great deal.

There was a high correlation between reading ability and reading speed. There was a higher correlation between reading ability and reading speed among students with higher scores than among students with lower scores.

The scores for the second administration of Form E were 23% higher than those for first administration of Form E. Students' reading comprehension improved on dialogues and directions and reading speed for dialogues and poems. Students with higher scores improved their reading speed much more than students with lower scores, while students with lower scores improved their scores more than students with higher scores.

Through the various tests administered over a period of two years, the following conclusions can be drawn:

1. College students can read essays faster than any of the other types of passages studied. They have the most difficulty with poems and dialogues.
2. Students who score higher can read faster.
3. Through one year of training, students improved their reading comprehension and particularly their reading speed. Students with higher scores improved their reading speed greatly.

## The Second Study

In this study, we looked at what types of errors students make, and the tendencies and frequency of those errors. Specifically, we analyzed the errors of top and bottom students on Forms E & F and compared them. We also compared the errors on Form E the first and second times that the students took it, and we looked to see if there were any changes in the types of errors students made.

**Procedures**

First, we classified the 70 questions on Forms E & F into five categories: direct, indirect, interpretation, reference, and vocabulary. Answers to questions in the direct category came directly or almost directly from the passage. Questions in the indirect category required students to draw inferences from key words in the passage. Questions in the interpretation category required students to either put two or more pieces of information together and draw an inference or to draw an inference from the context. Vocabulary questions asked about the meanings of words. Reference questions asked what pronouns or certain other words referred to. Since there were few questions, we combined the interpretation and reference categories.

### Results

In the analysis, we determined the expected ratio of errors for the bottom students for each question, based on the top students' ratio of errors and the average difference in errors between the top and bottom students. Judging from such an expected error ratio, the direct category has easier questions than any other. The interpretation and reference categories have more difficult questions than the indirect or direct categories, and the indirect category has more difficult questions than the direct category.

In the direct category, the easiest questions were the ones to which students could find exact answers in the passage, and the more difficult ones required a small amount of rewording. Similarly, in the indirect category, the difficult questions were the ones that were worded differently from the passage, or in the case of multiple choice questions, have a correct answer that is worded differently from the passage. The easier ones have phrases or numbers from the passage. In the interpretation and reference category, answers to difficult questions do not come from one place but from a whole paragraph or the entire passage, so students had to understand not just individual parts but how they fit together.

## Evaluation of the Results

According to our evaluation, direct questions are useful to check students' problems and what students have not understood, but they are not difficult enough to evaluate the top students accurately. Indirect questions are useful for achievement tests, because there is almost the same difference between top and bottom students on each question. Interpretation questions are useful for checking overall reading proficiency of the middle and top students, but they are too difficult for the bottom students.

Bottom students made a wider range of errors on multiple choice questions than top students did. There was a tendency for students to avoid difficult choices. There were fewer kinds of errors on short answer questions from top students than from bottom students. The first time students were tested, the high number of questions with no response accounted for almost half of the difference between the two groups of students in any category of questions.

As for the change of errors over one year, the number of errors of the bottom students decreased greatly, mainly due to a decrease in the number of questions with no answers. Errors on direct questions decreased most, particularly questions whose answers could be copied directly from the passage. Questions in all categories had similar errors the second time.

From the previous analysis, the following conclusions can be drawn:

1. It is necessary to grasp the main ideas of the passages and read at a certain reading speed. Using various literary forms, we have to teach reading for main ideas and reading at a certain speed.
2. When we evaluate students' reading proficiency, we have to use different categories of questions to evaluate different skills.
3. There is a possibility that we can judge students' reading proficiency from their errors or the number of questions they have no response for.

## The Third Study

### Revision of the Tests

We revised Form E to make Form G and Form F to Form H by changing the questions into multiple choice questions with four alternatives. We decreased the number of questions for the poem from ten on Form F to five on Form H. The number of words on the two revised forms were increased due to the use of multiple-choice questions, from 1,256 to 1,557 in Form G and 2,008 to 2,185 in Form H. (See Form G and Form H in the Appendix.)

### Procedures

We administered Form G in April 1983 (G1) and in January 1984 (G2) and Form H in July 1983 (H) to 3 classes of junior English majors at University A and 1 class of freshman economics majors and 1 class of students of mixed majors and levels at University B. We taught these classes with texts using various literary forms, and we tried to increase students' reading speed. We avoided the translation method. We analyzed the results of 199 students who took all three tests.

### Overall Results

The correlation between the two tests was .59, and the tests were parallel. The correlations between the sections and the total were all greater than .50, and each individual section indicated a similar reading ability with the total. There was a problem with one question in the poem (V) on Form E, we eliminated it and assigned 5 points for each of the four remaining questions for the analyses.

We computed the mean scores of Form G and H, time spent, correlations between the total scores and scores of sections and between the upper and lower groups, and the increase for a year.

Form H was more difficult than Form G. The correlation between the two tests was .59, and between the score and the time for G1 was -.45, H was -.37, and G2 was -.38. The average scores of essays and dialogues were the highest in both tests, and those of poems and newspapers were the lowest. The students read the dialogue and directions fastest in G and the essay and dialogue fastest in H. They read poems and newspaper articles most slowly in both tests. The correlations between the essays were highest (higher than .60) and those between the score and time were highest in dialogues (higher than -.40).

### Results of the Upper and Lower Groups

**Scores**. The average scores of the lower group were 59% of the upper group, and the lower group spent 120% of the time of the upper group. Those two groups have a large difference in reading ability. The upper group earned their best scores on essays and dialogues, and the lower group earned their best scores on dialogues and newspapers. There was an especially large difference in the essays. Both groups read the directions and dialogue fastest and the poem most slowly on Form G, and the upper group read the essay and dialogue fastest and the lower group, the essay and newspaper article on Form H. Both groups read the poem slowly on Form H.

The correlations between the total scores and essays were high in both tests and groups. The upper group's correlations between poems and the total scores are high. This means that they really needed to understand the contents of the poem. The students who read faster obtained higher scores, and the students who read more slowly obtained lower scores.

The difference between the upper and lower groups is large in essays and small in dialogues and newspaper articles. The lower group read dialogues and essays very slowly, and whether or not they could read essays well seemed to reflect their reading ability.

**Scores and times**. Students' total scores increased by 10% and their times decreased by 3%. Their scores on the directions and newspapers increased by more than 10%, indicating that they could understand these literary forms and handle figures. Except for the poem, times on individual sections decreased by about 5%. The total times of the upper group decreased 4.2%, and the lower group decreased 1.1%. In these tests, times of the better readers improved, and the scores of the poorer readers improved. These tests may have been too easy for measuring the reading proficiency of the upper group. The upper group improved in reading newspapers and the lower group, poems.

**Types of questions**. There was a high ratio of errors in the vocabulary questions (54.2%) and in the interpretation and reference questions (37.7%). Their scores in these two categories distinguish the upper group and the lower groups, with the upper group doing much better on the questions than the lower group. In one academic year, students' ability to answer indirect questions improved, but their ability to answer interpretation and reference questions did not. The upper group's scores improved 19% on the indirect questions and 5% on vocabulary questions, and the lower group improved 37% on the indirect questions and 29% on the interpretation and reference questions. The upper group had a ceiling effect, but the lower group improved in their ability to guess the meanings of unknown words from context and to answer questions that did not come directly from the passages. This indicates that we can measure the reading ability of the upper group with vocabulary and the lower group with interpretation and reference questions. The reading ability of both groups could be measured with questions not using wording directly from the passages (indirect questions).

Students had difficulty with questions in cases where they thought the first alternative was correct and did not read the rest of the alternatives (91.5%). They found two of the vocabulary questions particularly difficult (81.4% & 77.9%), they had difficulty inferring the season in the poem (64.8%), and counting the number of nouns in the passage (59.8%). They improved a great deal in their ability to fill in the chart with information from the passage. They also increased in their ability to understand the relationships among figures.

### Evaluation of the Results

From the above results, we concluded the following.

1. The students could read essays but they had difficulty with poems, newspapers, and directions.
2. Essays have high correlations with the total scores and can be used to measure reading ability.
3. Students can improve their reading ability and reading speed.
4. Students with higher scores read faster and improved their speed more than the students with lower scores.
5. Students' vocabulary and ability to guess the meaning from the context is insufficient. The differences between the upper and lower groups are caused, in part, by that ability to guess.
6. Students can improve their ability to answer questions when the answers do not come directly from the passage, and we can use such indirect questions to measure this improvement.

The above conclusions match the results of the two papers written by Kitao and Miyamoto (1982) and Kitao and Miyamoto (1983). However, the following conclusions are different.

1. Students' ability to read newspaper articles improved. This is perhaps partly because they could guess from the choices given.
2. A large part of the difference between the two groups was due to vocabulary.
3. The improvement of the upper group can be seen on vocabulary questions, and of the lower group on the interpretation and reference questions.

In conclusion, college students read English slowly, but their reading speed can be improved a great deal with training, and it seems to be useful to have them read with time limits in order to push them to read faster. In general, students cannot read newspapers and poems well, and they need to improve their vocabulary knowledge and their ability to guess the meanings of unknown words from context. Essays can be used to measure overall reading ability. Teachers should include various literary forms and include the interpretation and reference questions.

## The Fourth Study

The purpose of this paper is to look at the relationship between reading ability and reading speed using Form G and a reading speed test.

### Procedures

A reading speed test was developed using the first eleven paragraphs of an essay entitled *American Holidays and Festivals*. Words not found on the JACET basic list of 3990 words were replaced with easier words. The passage had 1,249 words. The readability was 8 on Fry's readability scale. We made three variations of the test, one 35 letters (9 centimeters) across, one 50 letters (12.8 centimeters) across, and one 65 letters (16.5 centimeters) across. There were three short answer skimming questions and ten multiple choice questions with four alternatives. These questions dealt with the main ideas from the second to eleventh paragraphs.

We administered Form G in April 1984 and the speed test in June 1984 to students in 12 classes at five colleges. Both tests were taken by 438 students. We timed the reading speed test, including the time spent answering questions in Form G, as we did in previous studies. We wrote three skimming questions on the blackboard and had students read the passage within 15 minutes, marking where they were in the reading each minute. After 15 minutes, we collected the reading passage, and we gave students the question sheets with three skimming questions and ten comprehension questions for five minutes.

## Results

**Form G**. The results of Form G were similar in some ways to those of the previous study. Students found the essay easiest. The correlation between score and time was -.42, indicating that students with higher scores read faster. Students did not do well on the poem, newspaper article, or directions. Good readers improved their reading speed and poor readers improved their score. The mean score was 87% (56.98) of the last one, and the reading speed was 110% (30 minutes 34 seconds), indicating that this group of students were lower level in English than those in the previous study.

**Speed test**. The results of the reading speed measure in the reading test indicated that students were, on average, reading fastest for the first minute (110 words per minute). The average reading speed fluctuated until the 8th minute, when the fastest students finished and the average reading speed dropped.

The students varied a great deal in their reading speed. The average reading speed was 122 words per minute, 81% read 80-140 wpm, 20% less than 100 wpm, and 13% over 150 wpm. Students who read the passage faster had lower scores on the comprehension questions. This contradicts previous results. We speculated that the students who read faster could not remember the content until they worked on the questions. (In the previous research, students could look back at the text while they answered the questions.) The way this measure was administered may test memory and not reading ability.

The average score on skimming questions was 68%. This seems very low, especially considering that the questions were given before the students read the passage. The average score on the comprehension questions was 54%. The difference between the upper and lower groups was particularly large in questions in which the exact wording of the correct choice was not found in the passage. The scores on the last two questions were low, probably in part because some students did not finish.

As for the effect of the width of the reading passage, the three groups did not significantly differ in scores of Form G but there were significant differences between time spent at .05 level. There were significant differences at the .05 level on scores of the skimming questions and the comprehension questions between texts 35 letters wide and 50 letters wide, and between texts 50 letters wide and 65 letters wide, but not between 35 and 65 letters wide at the .05 level. Students read the passage 35 letters wide fastest.

We did not anticipate that Form G would accurately measure reading speed, but correlations between the reading speeds for the two tests were greater than .50. The slower readers in the upper group had higher scores, which contradicted the results of previous studies.

## The Fifth Study

### Procedure

We administered Form G in April 1984 (G1) and again in January 1985 (G2), and Form H in July 1984. We also administered the reading speed test (S1), which we used in the previous study, in July 1984. We administered a similar reading speed test (S2) in December 1994. S2 was similar to S1. It was a part of an essay entitled "Television," which had 919 words after we rewrote it, replacing words not on the JACET 3990 word list with easier words. Its readability was 8 on the Fry Readability Scale. S2 had 3 skimming questions and 9 comprehension questions. We wrote the skimming questions on the blackboard, and students had 15 minutes to read the passages and find the answers for S1 and 12 minutes for S2. Students marked their place in the reading passage each minute.

These tests were given to 13 classes of English, economics and sociology majors. The results of 333 students who took all five tests are analyzed. In their classes, the students used textbooks which had various literary forms, emphasized learning English without translations, and included devices to time reading in order to help them improve their reading speed.

### Results

**Forms G and H**. The results of Form G and H were similar to the results of previous studies. There were correlations between scores and reading speed (-.35 to -.49), that is, students with higher scores read faster. The students varied greatly in their reading proficiency. The scores of the lower group of students were only 50-70% of the upper group, and time spent by the lower group was 125% of the upper group. The essays were the best measurement for reading ability, because the correlations between the total scores and scores of essays are highest (.68-.73), and the correlation between essays of G1 and G2 was highest (.51). Students improved their reading speed on directions and the dialogue by 12-14%. However, they did not improve much on newspapers and poems.

**Speed tests**. On reading speed tests S1 and S2, students read 105 words per minute with 54% comprehension. Their reading speed varied as they read fastest for the first minute, slowed down for the 2nd and 3rd minutes, and then sped up again for 4th through 6th minutes. The difference between the reading speeds of the upper and lower groups were an average of 28 words per minute. They read 105 words per minute in S1 and 109 words per minute in S2. They improved the scores on the skimming questions by 200%. The upper group could read the passage while comprehending the main ideas of the paragraphs in S2. They lacked the ability to organize information while they were reading. The vocabulary is the important difference between the upper and lower groups.

## Sixth Study

### Procedure

We administered Form E and the taught English courses without translation, emphasizing understanding paragraphs. We measured the reading speed and informed students of their reading speed. We used *An American Sampler*, which includes various literary forms. We gave Form E in April (E1) and again in following January (E2). Students who took the tests were English majors, commerce majors, law majors, and in classes with mixed majors, a total of 254 students. We chose the top and bottom 23% on E1 and formed an upper group of 59 students and a lower group of 59 students.

## Tendencies of Errors

We analyzed errors with four types of questions: direct, indirect, interpretation and reference, and vocabulary. Since we analyzed only written answers, we eliminated multiple-answer vocabulary questions.

We categorized the errors as follows:

I not understanding questions

1 misunderstanding wh- question words

2 not understanding the meaning of the question (e.g., When should pepper plants be fertilized? You should give them a lot of fertilizer.)

II not knowing the correct answer

1 not understanding in context (e.g., Where will Carlos stay tonight? The correct answer is "at the Riverside Hotel," but some gave such answers as "Caracas" or "New York.")

2 not reading carefully (e.g., How many seeds should be planted in each pot? The answer is "two to four," but some students missed "two to," and answered "four.")

3 not understanding referents (e.g., To what does "______" refer? Some students did not understand parts of speech, singular or plural, and got the answer wrong.)

4 not understanding vocabulary (e.g., What time of day is it? From the phrase "darkness drifts down," evening is correct, but without understanding that vocabulary, errors were made.)

5 calculating answers or making mistakes in calculating (e.g., Calculating instead of picking figures out of the reading passage.)
6 creating meaning without understanding the context (e.g., Why won't fruit form at 36 C? Without understanding the context, a student answered""Because it will be rotten," rather than "It is too hot.")

III errors in expressing answer (writing)
1 trying to use the sentence or phrase directly from the passage (e.g., What kind of weather do peppers like? The correct answer is "They like hot weather." However, some students answered, "They like temperatures above 15 C.)
2 using vocabulary incorrectly (e.g., "What time of day is it?" The correct answer was "Evening," but some students answered "late afternoon.")

**Results**

Both the upper and lower groups had high rates of type II errors, and frequently did not answer at all in both E1 and E2. 48.9% of the errors were of type II in E1 and 60.6% in E2. 27.6% of the errors were due to lack of an answer on E1 and 13.0% in E2. Together these two types of errors made up more than 70% of the errors. Errors of type I made up 8.7% of the errors on E1 and 7.8% on E2.

Differences between the upper and lower groups was 4.7% for type III errors on E1 and 3.2% on E2, but 22.9% for type II errors on E1 and 23.9% on E2.

As for direct questions, type I-1 made up 34.2% of the errors, and no answer made up 33.9% on E1. The next largest category was Type III-1, which made up 10.1%. The differences between the top and bottom groups are large in type II-1 and no answers. E2 shows similar results with the top group, but the bottom group is 19.8% lower in no answers.

As for indirect questions, type II-1 made up 29.0% of the errors, and no answers made up 25.2% on E1. Type II-1 made up 29.7%, and type III-1 21.7% on E2. II-5 is reversed between the top and bottom group in both tests. The bottom group decreased no answers 7.7% on E2.

As for interpretation and reference questions, type II-1 made up 46.9% of the errors, and type II-3 made up 27.4% on E1. The differences between the two groups were large in those types. E2 shows similar results for the top group, but the bottom groups decreased no answers 11.4%.

From the above, we concluded as follows. 1) Neither group understood and used context well. 2) Both groups understood the questions. 3) The bottom group performed poorly in expressing answers. 4) The top group had more errors with figures or calculating them. 5) The bottom group's "no answers" decreased about 15% from E1 to E2.

Next, I will discuss the implications of these results.

1) Students seem to understand individual sentences but they cannot understand larger units. We should teach students to deal with a whole passage or a paragraph and then try to understand individual sentences.

2) About 92% of the students understood questions with less than 10 words. However this means that 8% do not. We need to teach them to read and understand short sentences.

3) Students are not used to answering questions in English. We could teach students to answer in short sentences using key words at the beginning and developing expressions gradually.

4) The top group was careless and miscalculated figures.

5) There were two causes for the lack of answers. One was lack of time, and the other was not knowing how to express the answers. They need to learn to read faster.

## Conclusion

The results of these studies suggest a number of possibilities for the teaching of reading in Japanese universities.

1. Students do not have enough experience dealing with a variety of literary forms. College English reading textbooks often do not have literary forms other than essays. Students would also benefit from reading newspaper articles, poems, directions, and so on.
2. It is better, particularly at the beginning, to teach students using short passages, because longer passages in English put too much of a burden on students' memories. Gradually, as they become more accustomed to reading English, students can be given longer passages.
3. Students at different levels of proficiency need different types of questions. Lower-level students can answer direct questions and should be introduced to indirect and interpretation questions only gradually. Upper-level students generally find direct questions too easy, and benefit more from indirect and interpretation questions.
4. It is important to work on increasing students' reading speed.
5. Tests should combine difficult and easy passages.
6. It is important to teach students, particularly for more advanced students, how to guess the meanings of unknown words from context.
7. Various types of questions — indirect vs. direct, multiple choice vs. short answer, etc. — have different effects. Teachers and test makers should be aware of these effects.

## Appendix

## ENGLISH READING COMPREHENSION EXAMINATION

### Form G

This test is to measure your overall reading comprehension in English. There are five sections: directions, a conversation, an essay, a newspaper article, and a poem. Each section has a short reading passage followed by 5 or 10 questions and is worth 20 points. Work on each section as quickly and accurately as possible. The amount of time you spend and your score will be recorded.

I. Read the following passage and answer the questions.

Peppers are considered to be hot weather plants: thus they like temperatures above 15°C. On the other hand, they also like temperatures below 33°C. Anywhere outside this temperature range from 15°C to 33°C seems to keep the fruit from forming.

If you use seeds, you should plant them indoors in pots — two to four seeds a half-inch deep in each pot — about ten weeks before you plan to set the plants outdoors.

In your garden plant the young plants 14 inches apart.

Peppers need lots of regular watering. They are also heavy feeders, and you should give them a lot of fertilizer about the time the first blossoms open. (Use according to the instructions on the fertilizer package.)

1. What kind of weather do peppers like?
1) They like temperatures above 15°C and below 33°C.
2) They like temperatures ranging between 15°C and 33°C.
3) They are hot weather plants.
4) They like hot weather.

2. Why won't fruit form at 36°C?
1) Because they like temperatures below 33°C.
2) Because 36°C keeps fruit from forming.
3) Because they like temperatures between 15°C and 33°C.
4) Because 36°C is too hot.

3. How many seeds should be planted in each pot?

1) two 2) four 3) two, three, or four 4) two or four

4. How deep should seeds be planted?

1) 14 inches apart 2) 14 inches deep

3) a half-inch deep 4) a half-inch apart

5. When should pepper plants be fertilized?

1) for about ten weeks 2) when the first blossoms open

3) in the spring 4) after ten weeks

II. Read the following passage and answer the questions.

Driver: Where'll it be?

Carlos: Riverside Hotel, please.

Driver: Geez! How come you didn't take the limousine? You must be rolling in it!

Carlos: Rolling?

Driver: Rolling in it — you know — rich. Why didn't you take the limo? It goes right to the Riverside and it's only four dollars.

Carlos: Really? I didn't know that. I thought a limousine was a big, rented car.

Driver: Oh no! It's the big bus that shuttles between the airport and the city.

Carlos: Shuttle?

Driver: Yeah! You know — back and forth between the airport and downtown. Where in the world are you from, anyway?

Carlos: Caracas, Venezuela.

Driver: You're a long way from home. What're you doing here?

Carlos: I'll be studying a year at New York University.

Driver: N.Y.U.? Are you a brain or something? Is that all the luggage you have for a year? Wow, you should see what some people bring for just a week!

Carlos: My family's sending most of my books and things air freight.

1. What city is Carlos in now?

1) Caracas 2) New York 3) Riverside 4) Venezuela

2. Where will Carlos stay tonight?
1) at the Riverside Hotel   2) in Caracas
3) at N.Y.U.   4) in New York

3. What is Carlos riding in now?
1) a taxi   2) a limousine   3) a big bus   4) a rented car

4. How will the rest of Carlos' luggage be sent?
1) by his family   2) by air mail
3) by some people   4) by air freight

5. What do you think Carlos has with him?
1) a small suitcase   2) luggage and books
3) 2 big suitcases   4) a trunk

III. Read the following passage and answer the questions.

Today the game reserves of East Africa are facing a number of threats. Although they earn considerable "revenue" by attracting tourists, they take up land which is increasingly sought by the local people. While these reserves feed and protect animals, they are in danger of turning into "barren" areas or deserts. Trees, shrubs and grass are gradually being eaten by grazing herds.

Another problem is to be found in the changing attitudes of the animals themselves. Many of them are losing their hereditary fear of man. In this way they may become a danger to visitors and thus to themselves. Attacks on vehicles are beginning to increase, and it is possible that the problem will become serious in a few years' time.

The problem of shortage of land is not simple one. As the population increases, more and more people look hungrily at the land set aside for game reserves. They claim that a government's first duty is to its inhabitants and not to tourists or to wild animals. Despite the income obtained from tourism, this is an argument which is difficult to answer "satisfactorily."

1. Which of the following is the most suitable title for the passage?
1) Problems Facing East African Tourists
2) African Wild Animals Becoming More Dangerous
3) The Increasing Popularity of Game Reserves
4) Some Problems of East African Game Reserves

2. As far as we can tell from the passage, why does the government continue to maintain game reserves?
1) to stop people from using the land
2) to keep the vegetation under control
3) to reserve it for building development
4) to obtain income from tourism

3. What is the meaning of **REVENUE** in line 2?
1) respect 2) fame 3) reputation 4) money

4. What does **BARREN** mean in line 5?
1) vast 2) useless 3) crowded 4) wide

5. What does **SATISFACTORILY** mean in the last sentence of the passage?
1) quickly 2) ill 3) immediately 4) adequately

IV. Read the following newspaper article and answer the questions.

LONDON (AP) — Women account for almost three-quarters of British workers defined as low-paid, says a report published Wednesday — even though women's pay has increased 50 percent more than men's since the early 1960s.

The report, condensed from findings of the Royal Commission on the Distribution of Wealth and Income, says 68 percent of women in British manual jobs are low paid, as are 46 percent of women in non-manual work. Low pay is defined as the level of the bottom tenth of male manual workers-about 56 pounds ($125) a week.

The booklet is the last publication by the commission, which was wound up by the government in July after five years' work.

Besides reporting on female pay, it also highlights the fact that the richest 1 percent of the British people still own 25 percent of the nation's wealth — more than is held by the poorest 30 percent.

In 1923 the richest 1 percent owned 60 percent of the nation's wealth, so there has been some narrowing of the gap. One reason has been that the very rich still hold much of their wealth in company stocks, which have not performed well in recent years.

The less well off have had more of their assets tied up in houses, which have been a far better investment.

The richest 5 percent of the population still own 30 percent of company shares held by individuals, the report says.

1. Low paid people make about (          ) pounds a week.

1) 56  2) 125  3) 28  4) 84

Low paid British workers

| | women | men |
|---|---|---|
| manual jobs | ( 2)% | ( 3)% |
| non-manual jobs | ( 4)% | |

2.

1) 50  2) 68  3) 46  4) 54

3.

1) 50  2) 56  3) 42  4) 10

4.

1) 68  2) 46  3) 35  4) 32

Percent of nation's wealth held by

| | | now | 1923 |
|---|---|---|---|
| richest | 1% | ( 5 )% | ( 6 )% |
| (  7  ) | 30% | ( 8 )% | |

5.

1) 5  2) 30  3) 60  4) 25

6.

1) 60  2) 1  3) 5  4) 25

7.

1) the nation's wealth  2) low paid  3) poorest  4) more than

8.

1) less than 30  2) less than 25  3) less than 75  4) less than 5

9. Percent of stocks owned by individuals: ( 9 )% stocks owned by the richest ( 10 )%.

1) 25  2) 60  3) 5  4) 30

10. Percent of stocks owned by individuals: ( 9 )% of stocks owned by the richest ( 10 )%.

1) 5    2) 1    3) 30    4) 6

V. Read the following poem and answer the questions.

## THREE KINDS OF PLEASURES

### I

Sometimes, riding in a car, in Wisconsin
Or Illinois, you notice those dark telephone poles
One day one lift themselves out of the fence line
And slowly leap on the gray sky —
And past "them", the snowy fields.

### II

The darkness drifts down like snow on the picked cornfields
In Wisconsin, and on these black trees
Scattered, "one by one",
Through the winter fields —
We see stiff weeds and brownish stubble,
And white snow left now only in the wheeltracks of the combine.

### III

It is a pleasure, also, to be driving
Toward Chicago, near dark,
And see the lights in the barns.
The bare trees more dignified than ever,
Like a fierce man on his deathbed,
And the ditches along the road half full of a private snow.

1. In line 5, to what does the word "them" refer to?

1) the grey sky    2) leaping    3) telephone poles    4) the fence line

2. In Section II, what time of day is it?

1) night    2) evening    3) darkness    4) morning

3. In line 8, to what does "one by one" refer?

1) darkness    2) snow    3) cornfields    4) black trees

4. In section II, where is the snow?

1) in the wheeltracks of combine    2) in the cornfield
3) in Wisconsin    4) on the road

5. In section III, what time of year is it?
1) late spring 2) early spring 3) fall 4) winter

## ENGLISH READING COMPREHENSION EXAMINATION

### Form H

This test is to measure your overall reading comprehension in English. There are five sections: directions, a conversation, an essay, a newspaper article, and a poem. Each section has a short reading passage followed by 5 or 10 questions and is worth 20 points. Work on each section as quickly and accurately as possible. The amount of time you spend and your score will be recorded.

I. Read the following passage and answer the questions.

### CARROTS COOKED IN BUTTER

This is one of the most tasty ways of cooking carrots, and also the most sensible. Root vegetables easily absorb fat. By cooking not in water but in butter, you help to conserve nourishment.

You need a thick saucepan with a really tightfitting lid. (This is essential because the carrots cook in the steam from their own moisture, and they produce so little steam that none of it must escape.)

COOKING TIME
Sliced old carrots — 10-20 minutes; whole new carrots — up to 45 minutes

INGREDIENTS
carrots, about 1 tablespoon of butter, seasoning, a very small amount of sugar, chopped parsley

METHOD
1) "Scrub" and peel the carrots and cut older carrots into even slices, not too thick. New carrots can be left whole.
2) Heat enough butter to cover the bottom of the pan well. When it is hot but not smoking, add the carrots.
3) Add salt and pepper, but not too much because, in this way of cooking, none of the seasoning's flavor will be lost.

4)Cover with lid and cook over a gentle heat, shaking the pan occasionally so that the carrots do not stick or burn. Sliced carrots will take 10-20 minutes to become tender according to thickness. Whole new carrots may take up to 45 minutes.

5)Sprinkle lightly with the sugar — this helps to bring out the natural flavor of the carrots. Also sprinkle with coarsely chopped parsley if you like the extra color and flavor.

6)Serve with any buttery juice still remaining.

1. What kind of vegetables are carrots?
1) green vegetables 2) root vegetables
3) fat vegetables 4) tasty vegetables

2. How long should whole new carrots be cooked?
1) for about 45 minutes 2) for at most 45 minutes
3) for more than 45 minutes 4) for 55 to 65 minutes

3. How many ingredients are suggested for this dish?
1) 2 2) 3 3) 4 4) 5

4. The carrots should be cooked in butter to ______
1) save time 2) produce steam
3) absorb water 4) conserve nourishment

5. A tightfitting lid is needed to ______
1) prevent steam from escaping 2) prevent the carrots from escaping
3) conserve sauce 4) let moisture escape

6. "Scrub" in line 14 means:
1) wash with a brush 2) scrape with a knife
3) remove the skin of the carrots 4) cut with knife

7. In the pan, the butter should ______
1) be deep 2) cover the carrots 3) be shallow 4) be smoking

8. Not too much seasoning should be added because ______ will not be lost.
1) a lot of salt and pepper 2) steam
3) its taste 4) not too much salt and pepper

9. Which is NOT correct?
1) The carrots should be cooked over a low fire.

2) The carrots should be shaken over a gentle fire.
3) The carrots should be burned over a gentle fire.
4) The carrots should be cooked over gentle heat.

10 ________ carrots will take ________ minutes to become tender.
1) Thickly sliced, 20 2) Very thinly sliced, 19
3) Old, 45 4) Whole new, over 45

II Read the following passage and answer the questions.

Brenda: We can be leaders, too, you know.

Ron: Of course you can. I didn't say that you couldn't. There are some clubs with girl presidents.

Rita: Right. And you know which ones? (She lists obvious and unimportant clubs.) The French Club, the Art Club, and the Home Economics Club.

Mark: That's right. So why are you complaining?

Ann: Why can't a girl be "student body" president?

Rita: (backing her up) Why is it always a guy?

Larry: There's no rule. But it's just always been that way.

Jane: So you think that because it's always been that way, it should continue to be that way.

Kay: You want girls for club secretary or treasurer or any job that does all the work. You guys want the jobs that get all the glory.

Rita: Why shouldn't girls be president of the band or the sports club or the drama club?

Ron: That's silly. What good would it do to have a girl for president of the sports club? No one comes to see girls' sports.

Ann: (angrily) And why not?

Larry: What do you mean?

Brenda: Female sports are never pushed, that's why not! They put all the money into football and basketball.

Joel: It doesn't do any good to push female sports.

Mark: That's right — no one comes to see girls' sports, anyway.

Jane: Now just a minute — a lot of people showed up for Jessie's Olympic tryout.

Ann: Yeah. And she's the only person from this school who ever got an Olympic tryout. No guy ever has.

Jane: The school got a new football stadium instead of a gym with a pool, so she had to do all her practice and tryouts at the YWCA.

Ann: OK, now — what about THAT

1. In the first line, who does "we" refer to?
1) Brenda, Rita, Ann, Kay and Jane
2) Everyone 3) girls 4) guys

2. Which of the following is considered an important club at the school?
1) the French Club 2) the sports club
3) YWCA 4) the Art Club

3. What is the "student body"?
1) club leaders 2) all the students
3) sports club 4) student representatives

4. How many girls have been president of the student body?
1) two 2) three 3) several 4) none

5. According to Kay, who does more work?
1) the club president 2) Jane
3) the club secretary 4) the guys

6. What sport is Jessie good at?
1) female sports 2) Olympic tryouts 3) football 4) swimming

7. What sports get money from the school authorities?
1) football 2) football and basketball
3) football and baseball 4) female sports

8. What new sports facility was built at the school?
1) a football stadium 2) a swimming pool
3) a gym 4) none

9. Where did Jessie practice?
1) at the YMCA 2) at the football stadium
3) at the gym 4) at the YWCA

10. Why didn't Jessie practice at the school?
1) Because no one came to see her
2) Because there was no football stadium at the school

3) Because there was no swimming pool at the school
4) Because there was no gym at the school

III. Read the following paragraphs and answer the questions.

The floor of most of the school is covered with brown and gold carpeting. The walls and ceilings are white, and there are no windows in the classrooms. Most of the classrooms have no doors; they open directly onto the halls. The walls are supposed to be movable, so when "open classrooms" are needed, the walls can be removed. There are special classrooms for home economics, art, music, dramas, sciences, and special studies for students not planning on attending college. Besides the classrooms we have the basic facilities for most schools: a cafeteria, a gymnasium, an auditorium, locker rooms, and a library.

Our library, however is different from most school libraries. We call it a media center because it includes much more than books. Small rooms branch off of it with supplies for students to listen to tape recordings, listen to records, and show themselves filmstrips. Across the hall, included as part of the media center, is our "audio-visual" room. This room is used for storing equipment for teachers to borrow for use in their classes. There are film projectors and overhead projectors to project writing onto the walls.

The most unique feature of our media center is the television studio. There students can create and film television shows that can then be viewed on any or all of our many television sets. This studio is used for special projects which the average student is involved in once a year.

This is a description of very modernized high school possessing many facilities that the ordinary school lacks. Most schools do not have carpeting and air conditioning, but there will be doors on the classrooms. Although the library would not be as highly developed, it would adequately fulfill the students' need.

1. The unique feature of "open classrooms" is classrooms without ______

1) windows 2) doors 3) walls 4) walls and windows

2. Our library is called a media center because it has ______

1) many other things except books
2) only books
3) only tape recordings, records, and filmstrips
4) film projectors and other machines

3. Our audio-visual room includes ______.
1) a movie camera 2) slide projectors
3) video recorders 4) overhead projectors

4. The main purpose of the television studio is ______.
1) to show students TV programs
2) for teachers to make TV programs for the class
3) to make TV shows for entertainment
4) for students to make TV shows

5. Ordinary schools do not have ______.
1) film projectors 2) tape recordings
3) carpeting 4) doors on the classrooms

IV. Read the following newspaper article and answer the questions.

Washington (Washington Star) — The unemployment rate was 7.8 percent in July, almost unchanged from June, as the decline in employment of the last four months apparently "leveled off", the Labor Department reported Friday.

The 7.8-percent rate, following the 7.7 percent in June and the 7.8 percent in May, gives three months of fairly level unemployment after the unemployment rate jumped from 6.2 percent to 7.8 percent between March and May.

Unemployment for adult males, at 6.7 percent, and adult women also at 6.7 percent, were essentially unchanged. Unemployment for blacks rose to 14.2 percent, up from 13.6 percent.

The economic signals in the figures were mixed, and Janet Norwood, the commissioner of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, said it was too early to suggest any new trend. Many economists have been predicting that the unemployment rate will rise to near 9 percent by the end of the year.

Total employment was up

460,000, after four months of sharp declines. But since February total employment is still down by about 950,000. At the same time, the labor force — the total of all the employed and unemployed — rose 650,000 in July, which is why the rate of unemployment rose slightly.

But payroll employment, which excludes farm workers and is measured in a separate survey, fell 240,000 in July. The Labor Department said this drop was attributable to major strikes in the mining and construction industries, which have idled about 150,000 workers. However, in the payroll survey, these workers are counted as not working but as still employed in the total employment survey.

In addition, the federal government is laying off about 90,000 workers who had been hired to do the 1980 census, the department said, and this added to the payroll employment drop.

1. In line 7, what does "level off" mean?
1) become stable 2) decrease 3) rise 4) change

2. The unemployment rate rose by ______ % between March and May.
1) 1.6 2) 1.8 3) 9 4) 107.8

3. What two industries had strikes?
1) the Labor Department and the Bureau of Labor Statistics
2) the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the federal government
3) farm workers and payroll employees
4) mining and construction

4. What was the July increase in the labor force?
1) slight 2) 150,000 3) 190,000 4) 650,000

5. By what amount did the payroll employment decrease in July?
1) 90,000 2) 150,000 3) 240,000 4) 390,000

V. Read the following poem and answer the questions.

### A BLESSING

Just off the highway to Rochester, Minnesota,
Twilight bounds softly forth on the grass.

And the eyes of those two Indian "ponies"
Darken with kindness.
They have come gladly out of the willows
To welcome my friend and me.
We step over the barbed wire into the pasture
Where they have been grazing all day, alone.
They ripple tensely, they can hardly "contain" their happiness
That we have come.
They bow shyly as wet swans. They love each other.
There is no loneliness like theirs.
At home once more,
They begin munching the young tufts of spring in the darkness.
I would like to hold the slenderer one in my arms,
For she has walked over to me
And nuzzled my left hand.
"She" is black and white,
Her mane falls wild on her forehead.
And the light breeze moves me to caress her long ear
That is delicate as the skin over a girl's wrist.
Suddenly I realize
That if I stepped out of my body I would break into blossom.

1. What time of day is it?
1) dawn 2) early morning 3) evening 4) night

2. What time of year is it?
1) spring 2) summer 3) fall 4) winter

3. How many people are present?
1) 1 2) 2 3) 4 4) none

4. How many swans are present?
1) 1 2) 2 3) 3 4) none

5. What does "she" refer to in line 18?
1) the slenderer pony 2) a swan 3) two ponies 4) tufts

## Notes

[1] The members of the College Reading Materials Research Project were K. Kitao, V. Broderick, B. Fujiwara, M. Inoue, S. K. Kitao, H. Miyamoto, and L. Sackett.

[2] The papers that these summaries are based on are:

First Study

Kitao, K. & Miyamoto, H. (1982). Daigakusei no eigo dokkairyoku — Chosa ni yoru kosatsu [Japanese college students' English reading ability — A study based on testing]. *Doshisha Studies in English, 30*, 135-165.

Second Study

Kitao, K. & Miyamoto, H. (1983). Daigakusei no eigo dokkairyoku no mondaiten — Goto no keiko to suii [Japanese college students' problems in reading English — Tendencies and changes in errors — ]. *Doshisha Studies in English, 32*, 118-147.

Third Study

Kitao, K. & Yoshida, S. (1985). Daigakusei no eigo dokkairyoku to sono speed no kenkyu [A study of college students' English reading comprehension and speed]. *Chubu Chiku Eigo Kyoiku Gakkai Kiyo* [Chubu English Language Education Society Collected Papers], *14*, 28-34.

Fourth Study

Kitao, K., Kitao, S. K., Yoshida, S., & Yoshida, H. (1985). Daigakusei no eigo dokkai sokudo no kenkyu [A study of college students' reading speed]. *Chubu Chiku Eigo Kyoiku Gakkai Kiyo* [Chubu English Language Education Society Collected Papers], *14*, 168-174.

Fifth Study

Kitao, K., Yoshida, S., & Yoshida, H. (1986). Daigakusei no eigo dokkairyoku no mondaiten — Goto no ruikei to genin — [Japanese college students' problems in reading English — Tendencies and cases in errors]. *Chubu Chiku Eigo Kyoiku Gakkai Kiyo* [Chubu English Language Education Society Collected Papers], *15*, 8-13.

Sixth Study

Yoshida, S. & Kitao, K. (1986). 5tsu no dokkai test o riyo shita daigakusei no eigo dokkai sokudo oyobi rikaido no kenkyu [Japanese college students' English reading ability and reading speed — A study based on 5 tests]. *Chubu Chiku Eigo Kyoiku Gakkai Kiyo* [Chubu English Language Education Society Collected Papers], *15*, 183-188.

# 9. A Study of Trends of College English Reading Textbooks in Japan: An Analysis of College English Reading Textbooks for 1985

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## Abstract

Most of the university English courses in Japan are reading courses, and yet university students do not necessarily read English well. Though textbooks have a great influence on English teaching, we could not find any statistical studies on the characteristics of reading textbooks. We decided to look at the English reading textbooks published in the academic year of 1985, a total of 182 books. We considered the overall impression that the book made, the number of illustrations, the number of pages in the book and the number of pages of text, exercises, and notes, availability of a tape, literary form, topics covered, level of the difficulty of the language, origin of the original text, presence or absence of exercises, types of exercises, and so on. We also compared textbooks we classified as traditional reading textbooks (those with mainly a reading and notes) with new reading textbooks (those with readings and various exercises). Finally, we identified some trends in textbooks.

## Introduction

It has been said that Japanese can read English well but cannot speak it. However, many teachers of English are convinced that it is only a myth that Japanese people can read English well (Kitao, 1983; Matsumura, 1984; Takefuta, 1982).

One of the causes of poor reading is English textbooks. Most English textbooks are not designed to teach language for the purpose of communication (Kitao, 1979). English reading textbooks for college students, in particular, have problems (Kitao and Kitao, 1982). Authors and editors of these textbooks do not bother, for example, to make use of visual aids to motivate students to read or make use of exercises to help students increase their reading skills or speed. Most textbooks just provide a reading text, notes which include explanations of unknown vocabulary, people, places, backgrounds, words with special cultural meaning, and possibly grammatical points.

The Japan Association of College English Teachers (JACET), a professional organization for college English teachers, which has about 1,300 members, published a paper, *A Study of Present and Future College English Teaching from the Instructor's Viewpoint* (Koike et al., 1983). This paper reports that 80% of English classes for non-English majors are for reading. Among those, 60% of the classes emphasize intensive reading based on translation. Less than 20% of the classes emphasize extensive reading and improving reading speed. It also reports that about 80% of English teachers are not satisfied with the quality of English textbooks.

## Previous Research on College Students' Reading Ability

A series of studies on Japanese college students' reading comprehension in English was done between 1980 and 1984, using more than 5,000 students in eleven universities. These studies showed that Japanese students could read less than 100 words per minute, could not grasp main ideas well, did not understand constructions of paragraphs, could not express information they had gained in reading, could not combine ideas, and had poor vocabularies (Kitao and Miyamoto, 1982; Kitao and Miyamoto, 1983; Kitao and Yoshida, 1985; Kitao, Kitao, Yoshida and Yoshida, 1985; Kitao, Yoshida and Yoshida, 1986; Yoshida and Kitao, 1986).

## Recent Trends of College English Textbooks

It appears to us that college English textbooks have changed a great deal over the last few years. The English used in the textbooks is easier, the typeface is larger, the textbooks themselves are larger, they have fewer pages, and there are more visuals such as photos and drawings. A few textbooks have color pictures. Many of them have audio tapes. Even a video tape has appeared. Also, more non-literary material and more material intended for non-native speakers of English is being used.

We speculate, based on information from various publishers, that this is due to the change of English proficiency of college students, because their junior high school and high school English curriculum was changed several years ago when the Ministry of Education changed the Course of Study. The Course of Study reduced the number of required hours in English classes and decreased the number of vocabulary words and grammatical structures required at each level (Kitao, Kitao, Nozawa, and Yamamoto, 1985). Another reason for the changes is that the communicative aspect of English is being emphasized more, because Japanese people a[illegible] aving more direct contact with foreigners.

## Purpose of the Study

Before doing this study, we investigated previous studies on college textbooks. We could not find any statistical studies describing textbooks published in Japan. The purpose of this study was to analyze the 182 English reading textbooks (out of a total of 232 English textbooks) published by 26 publishers for the 1985 academic year. We also compared these to textbooks published in previous years in order to identify trends in English textbooks. Since we could not find statistical studies for other years, this comparison is based on our previous experience.

## Methods of the Study

For the academic year of 1985, a total of 213 college English textbooks were published by 26 Japanese publishers, including fifteen College English Textbook Association members. Of these textbooks, 150 were traditional reading textbooks (TRTs) specifically for reading classes. TRTs are textbooks which have main texts and notes, and sometimes a few comprehension questions. The remaining 32 reading textbooks were new reading textbooks (NRTs). NRTs have main texts and have other exercises in addition to comprehension questions. NRTs emphasize all around English as well as reading.

As a research project, we evaluated these 182 textbooks both objectively and subjectively in a number of different areas in order to get an idea of the situation of English textbook publication in Japan. Objective evaluation was done by two researchers, a procedure which verified the accuracy of the results. Subjective evaluation was done by six researchers, and results were averaged for each item. We analyzed the results by computer using SPSS.

## Results of the Study: 182 Textbooks

If we had one overall impression of these textbooks, it was that students must have a difficult time getting interested in the English classes that use them. In several of the areas that we evaluated, textbooks would appear uninteresting to students.

A student's first impression of a textbook is likely to be influenced by the cover. However, few publishers took advantage of the cover to attract students' interest. Many covers were a plain color, with only the title of the book and the name of the author(s). Some did have interesting or colorful pictures or drawings which might give students at least an initial interest in the textbook.

After looking at the cover of the textbook, students probably glance through the book and see if it looks interesting, and this also contributes to their first impression. Unfortunately, few of the books had layouts that would be likely to attract students and give them a good first impression of the textbook. One third of the books (58 books) had no pictures; others had only one picture at the beginning. A few textbooks had pictures, drawings, diagrams, etc., inserted in the text. These broke up the text so that it looked less "intimidating" and more interesting to students (and would later give students visual help in understanding the information in the textbook.) The most common visual aids are illustrations and black and white photos (an average of 5.6 and 5.0 respectively in each textbook). Maps (0.5) and color photos (0.1) are not often used.

One problem we found is that many of the visual aids were not necessarily closely related to the content. Most of them have nothing to do with the content, and some were confusing.

There are only four sizes of textbooks: B6 (185x130mm), 46 (200x140), A5 (210x150), B5 (260x185). Sixty-eight textbooks are B6, 5 are 46, 102 are A5, and 7 are B5. A5-sized textbooks are new and are larger than traditional college textbooks (B6 and 46). We were surprised that it is the most common size now. B5-size textbooks are very new and getting more popular. Until recent years, B6 and 46 were most common. We speculate that the reason textbooks are getting larger is related to the use of larger type face and the increase of visual aids and exercises.

The average number of pages in a textbook is 105. Main texts take up an average of 68 pages. Notes average 22 pages; exercises, 7 pages; and other, 8 pages.

Since Japanese classes meet about 25 times over the course of an academic year and generally only use one textbook during that time, this means that students read 2-3 pages of text in a 90-100 minute class. This figure is also much lower than the 70-100 pages of main text suggested by JACET as an adequate number (Koike, et al., 1983).

About one third of the textbooks (66) do not have audio tapes. JACET reports that 609 out of 971 teachers use audio tapes frequently (Koike, et al., 1983). Some textbooks still ignore the phonetic aspects of language teaching. Most of the tapes include only the reading of the main texts, and some of them do not sound natural.

For main texts, essays (62) are most common, followed by short stories (42), and novels (11). However, literature (68), including short stories (42), novels (11), drama (5), poetry (2), and autobiographies (8), is the major area of content.

Few textbooks include culture with small a c, that is, the daily aspects of life in English-speaking countries.

There are 6 textbooks on newspapers and 2 on broadcasting, which provide different literary forms of English.

We felt that the content of many of the textbooks did not reflect the interests of a broad section of Japanese college students. While obviously no subject is going to interest all students, it seemed to us that publishers and authors should emphasize subjects that would be likely to interest as many students as possible. Topics such as detailed explanations of the architectural features of English cathedrals, the social history of Gothic and renaissance art, Britain in the 1880's, and a technical discussion of dialects of American English would be unlikely to interest most students. While the literature of English-speaking people certainly has a place in the teaching of English, many of the pieces of literature chosen would be likely to be of little interest except to literature majors. Also, novels are difficult to teach due to their length; students have trouble following the thread of the plot over a long period of time.

Ninety-six textbooks (53%) are made up of excerpts with Japanese notes, and these are the most common. Thirty-five textbooks (19%) are written for non-native speakers of English, 13 (7%) for Japanese, and 9 (5%) rewritten for non-native speakers. Most of the texts are still not designed for a Japanese audience, but texts intended for non-native audiences in general or Japanese audiences in particular are increasing very rapidly.

In some of the books, the English used was extremely difficult. Abstract ideas were expressed in long, complex sentences with many difficult words. Such difficult English would only succeed in frustrating and discouraging students. Literature in particular included many examples of non-standard English. Except for those at a very advanced level, students would have difficulty understanding it and become discouraged.

The average number of words per sentence was 20.6. Ten texts had 40 or more words per sentence, and 74 had 20 or more words per sentence. Such long sentences are difficult for Japanese college students to read and comprehend.

The number of unfamiliar words (words which are not included in the JACET 4,000-word list [a list compiled by JACET of 4,000 words that college students should learn]) per 100 words were 6 or more in 34 texts. In our experience, it is very difficult for students to read material with more than 5% unfamiliar words. However, the average percentage of unfamiliar words is only 3.3%, which is much lower than we expected.

One important aspect of learning a foreign language is learning about the culture(s) of the people who speak it. (Being able to learn about other cultures is also interesting and therefore motivating to students.) Some textbooks included information about English-speaking cultures, mainly the United States (61), Britain (47), or a combination of the two (42), for a total of 150 textbooks (82%). Five textbooks compare Japanese culture or society with that of an English-speaking country. Only one text deals with an English-speaking country other than the U.S. and Britain.

Authors of 129 textbooks (71%) are American or British. Students are studying mainly those two countries and people. However, one new trend in the 1980s is that the textbooks written by native speakers of English and Japanese together are increasing.

While literature written by or about English-speaking people would reflect their daily lives, attitudes toward interpersonal relationships, etc., some of the pieces of literature were written thirty or more years ago and do not reflect daily life and attitudes in the present. Fourteen texts (8%) were published before World War II, and four of them (2%) were published in the nineteenth century. The English used in these textbooks is rather outdated. However, 73 (40%) contained main texts published since 1980, and there is a trend toward using new publications in textbooks.

Many of the textbooks had notes almost exclusively in Japanese, rather than defining difficult words in English. The problem with this is that it encourages students to translate the text into Japanese rather than to try to comprehend in English what they are reading. Only two texts did not have any Japanese explanations.

From our point of view as teachers who might consider using one of these textbooks, a very serious problem with most of them is the lack of exercises. Only about one quarter of the textbooks (41) have exercises; of those that did, some have inadequate exercises. Most of these have only one or two types of exercises with a few questions covering only superficial aspects of the reading, without requiring students to look at relationships among pieces of information, make inferences from what they read, etc. Some of the textbooks only have dictation exercises (dialogues with blanks that students fill in while listening to a tape) or translation exercises. Unless a teacher has the time, energy, and self-confidence to write exercises, there is little for students to do but translate the texts word-for-word into Japanese. While translating is useful in some cases, it will not help students develop skill in reading for communicative purposes. Students need help in comprehending the material in English and developing their reading skills.

More than eighty percent of the textbooks (149) do not have teacher's manuals. This is a problem, because teachers may need suggestions on how to use the textbook and background information on the subject(s) dealt with in the text. However, teacher's manuals usually only have answers for exercises. Only two manuals have thorough information about how to use the textbooks or background information for the reading texts.

**Comparisons between TRTs and NRTs**

New reading textbooks (NRTs) tend to be larger. Twenty-six (81%) are B5 and A5, while only 83 (55%) traditional reading textbooks (TRTs) are those sizes. NRTs have more visual aids and exercises and tend to be bigger. However, even many TRTs have increased in size, showing an overall trend toward larger textbooks.

NRTs have an average of 36 pages of exercises while TRTs have only 1 page. This is the biggest difference between the two. NRTs emphasize performance in the target language. TRTs average more pages in the main text (73 pages or 69% of the total pages) than NRTs (42 pages or 42%). However, the portion of notes to the main text are almost the same. NRTs still emphasize notes as much as TRTs do. It seems to be difficult to escape from the traditional language teaching style. However, two NRTs have notes entirely in English. As a matter of fact, they do not have any Japanese anywhere in them. This is a very new trend.

Teacher's manuals accompanied 21 NRTs (66%) but only 12 TRTs (7%). One reason for this is that NRTs have more exercises and need answer keys.

NRTs have a variety of exercises, including comprehension checks, vocabulary exercises, and discussion exercises, because they emphasize language activities. However, some of the textbooks do not have adequate exercises.

Audio tapes accompanied 25 NRTs (78%) and 91 TRTs (60%). More and more textbooks tend to have audio tapes. However, even NRTs have tapes of only main texts, not activities or exercises. One reason for unsatisfactory audio tapes is that they are usually given to teachers without charge, and the publishers cannot make profits on them at all.

The content of NRTs is mixed literary forms (31%), essays

(31%), and short stories (13%). No forms of literature other than short stories are included in NRTs. TRTs have literature (43%) and essays (35%). Literature is still dominant in TRTs. NRTs have mixed passages with different literary forms, but most TRTs have only one literary form.

Some NRTs (34%) have Japanese authors, and this is a new trend. Also, 56% of the NRTs are written for non-native speakers of English, while 63% of TRTs are just excerpts of original English books. Only 6% of the NRTs use excerpts.

As far as we were able to tell, none of the main texts of the NRTs were written before 1970, and they are relatively new. NRTs emphasize current English.

The average number of words per sentence in NRTs is 17.1 while that of TRTs is 21.4. Almost 80% of the NRTs have less than 20 words per sentence and none has more than 40. Unfamiliar words per 100 words in NRTs is 1.5 while in TRTs, 3.7. NRTs use much easier vocabulary. We can assume that NRTs are much easier to read than TRTs.

As for the purpose of the textbooks, the purpose of 22% of the NRTs but none of the TRTs is language teaching; all round education in 78% in TRTs but none of the NRTs; mixed in 63% of the NRTs and 5% of the TRTs. We cannot classify 16% of NRTs and 17% of TRTs according to purpose. We assume that authors or editors making these textbooks did not consider the specific purposes carefully.

## Conclusion

In this study, we identified a number of trends in textbooks published in 1985.

1) Textbooks are larger, with fewer pages.
2) Textbooks have more pictures and other visual aids.
3) English used in the textbooks is easier.

4) More non-literary texts and more texts intended specifically for non-native speakers are used.
5) More textbooks use recently written main texts.
6) More textbooks have exercises to supplement the main text.
7) More textbooks emphasize developing language skills.
8) More textbooks have Japanese authors or co-authors.
9) More textbooks make use of main texts written specifically for non-native speakers.
10) More textbooks have audio tapes.
11) More textbooks have teacher's manuals.

Judging from this overview of recently-published textbooks, we feel that it is important for publishers to carefully consider first of all the interests of students and second how students can be better helped to understand the English they are reading and to develop reading skills.

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# 10. Independent Reading in English – Use of Graded Readers in the Library English as a Second Language Corner –

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## Abstract

Most English reading courses in Japan emphasize teaching reading through the grammar-translation method, using intensive reading. However, recently, there has been more interest in extensive reading. When doing extensive reading, students are allowed to choose the books they want to read. Graded readers are available which have simplified language and which are classified according to vocabulary level. Two of the authors used such graded readers in eight English classes for four to six weeks and surveyed students' reactions to the assignment. In some classes, extra credit was offered for each book read, and in some cases the amount of extra credit depended on the difficultly level of the book. Students also filled out questionnaires about each book they read and a questionnaire about the assignment. In this paper, we described the assignment and reported on the results of the questionnaires.

## Introduction

Reading has been the most emphasized skill in English instruction since its inception in Japan in the late nineteenth century. Grammar-translation has been the most commonly used method in

Japan since that time (Hashimoto, 1977; Ogino, 1983). Even today, this type of instruction is the most commonly used one in junior high schools, senior high schools, and colleges, and it becomes more common as the level goes up (Koike, 1983). As a result, it is often said that the Japanese can read English but cannot speak it well. However, it is doubtful that the Japanese can read English well (Matsumura, 1984; Takefuta, 1982). Reading can be defined as the meaningful interpretation of written or printed verbal symbols (Harris and Sipay, 1975), but through our observations in classes, we have seen many students who do not understand meanings even after they replace all English words with Japanese words (Kitao, 1983).

Recently, because of interest in what is referred to as internationalization, the study of English for the purpose of communication has increased in importance. This has led to a number of changes in practices in the English classroom in Japan. Language activities have been emphasized in junior and senior high school classes, a large number of native speakers of English have been hired, and more practical English and all around English have become goals in English classes. Though listening and speaking are emphasized more than ever before, the total number of English instruction hours has been reduced in junior and senior high schools, and hours spent on teaching reading have been cut drastically.

Studies done on several thousand senior high school and college students' reading proficiency in English from 1981 to 1984 indicated that their reading proficiency in English was not high, and their reading rate was slow (Kitao and Miyamoto, 1982; Kitao and Miyamoto, 1983; Kitao and Yoshida, 1985; Kitao, Kitao, Yoshida, and Yoshida, 1985; Kitao, Yoshida, and Yoshida, 1986; Yoshida and Kitao, 1986). Psycholinguistic studies indicate that there is a positive correlation between reading speed and reading proficiency and that it is by reading that readers learn to read and improve their reading skills (Smith, 1978). Therefore, reading fast and reading more is good training to improve reading proficiency.

In this paper, we will report on individualized instruction in reading English for increasing reading proficiency and will discuss the potential of individualized instruction, based on the results of our surveys.

## Individualized Instruction of Reading in English

Every year since 1978, one of the authors has given his students a survey about the textbooks they have used. The results indicate that many students are not satisfied with the textbooks that they use. Textbooks are adopted by teachers and school authorities, and the students have never had the opportunity to choose their own textbooks. Most students have only read the textbooks and supplementary readers required for their classes, and they have not read any English books of their own choosing. Ito, Shimizu and Honda (1986) reported that even college English majors read only 1.7 English books a year on average. College students do not generally seem to read much English.

Recent college English textbooks are very thin (Yoshida et al., 1986; Kitao et al., 1987; Kitao et al., 1988). They have only 5,000-10,000 words, and most of them are on the low end of that range. Some publishers have even begun considering production of textbooks with fewer than 5,000 words. Considering the present situation, it is assumed that the amount of English that students are exposed to is rather limited and will continue to diminish. It is not surprising to find that insufficient English input has been negatively affecting the reading proficiency of students. Some students try to improve their reading ability by reading books in English outside the classroom. However, most of them become frustrated and give up, ironically, because of their poor English proficiency.

Individualized reading instruction programs have even been developed for elementary school students in the United States. With this type of instruction, students are allowed to choose books based on their ability, interests, motivation, etc. They read the first page or two of the book with the teacher, and if the readability is suitable, they continue to read (Shimatani, Kitao, and Kitao, 1987).

Several hundred books graded by vocabulary level have been published in Britain and the United States. They include books written in easy English, famous stories and nonfiction rewritten in easy English. Readability of the books is determined by the vocabulary levels, length of the stories, length or complexity of the sentences, and previous knowledge required. However, vocabulary level influences readability most and is a reliable basis on which to determine readability, adopt textbooks, and choose books for instruction of reading outside of the classroom (Hill and Thomas, 1988a and 1988b).

Graded readers are often used for independent reading outside of the classroom (e.g., Hatayama, 1985, 1987; Marumoto, 1986; and Burger, 1986). Shanefield (1986) reported on the ESL book corner at Princeton Public Library which has provided immigrant or foreign children with easy English books since 1972. She bought more than twenty graded readers each year and had accumulated more than 300 books in the ESL corner by 1986. One of the characteristics of the ESL corner is that graded readers are divided into four levels according to their vocabulary levels: elementary (300-999 words), low intermediate (1,000-1,800 words), high intermediate (2,000-2,999 words), and advanced (more than 3,000 words), and readers can easily find books which fit their English proficiency. The intermediate level is further divided into two levels, because many readers are at this level. She used an easy method to classify graded readers into the four levels by using publishers' catalogues. This arrangement gave learners easy access to graded readers and encouraged them to read more than before. As a result, the learners' reading proficiency improved.

In order to put into practice Shanefield's idea of having students do independent reading outside of the classroom, the English as a Second Language (ESL) Corner was established in the Learned Memorial Library at Doshisha University, and about 220 graded readers based on the list compiled by Kitao and Shimatani (1988) were acquired. There were four levels of graded readers: elementary (70 books), low intermediate (70), high intermediate (35), and advanced (35). The levels of the books are determined according to their vocabulary level: elementary — less than 1,000 words; low intermediate — less than 2,000; high intermediate — less than 3,000; and advanced — 3,000 and above, respectively. Students could read them in the library and also check out up to three books at a time. Two of the authors used individualized instruction for independent reading in nine English classes. We will discuss the results of eight classes, excluding one class for students who had failed. The results were analyzed and are presented below.

## Trial of Individualized Instruction for Reading English Books

Since we have only forty clock hours for each English course, two of the authors experimented with independent reading outside of the classroom, using about 220 graded readers in the ESL Corner. This project was carried out from April to June 1988.

We offered an opportunity to read independently to six freshmen English classes ( # 1, 2, 4, 5, 6 and 8) and two sophomore English classes (7 and 9) , 300 students in total. Since there were only 220 graded readers, we used different time periods so that the students could read whatever they were interested in. We used four weeks from the middle of April for classes 7 and 9, six weeks from the middle of April for class 8, and five weeks from the end of May for classes 1, 2, 4, 5 and 6, so that they could have more choice of what books to read.

In class, we distributed and discussed suggestions for reading graded readers (Appendix A) and strongly recommended that the students read the graded readers. We gave the students a list of all the graded readers that were available and copies of the report sheet (Appendix B). We offered extra points to the students for each book report that they submitted in six classes (Classes 1, 2, 4, 5 and 6), with the number of points, in some cases, depending on the level of difficulty of the books read, as shown in Table 2. Students could read books and turn in report sheets to earn up to ten points. For example, if a student in Class 1 read an elementary-level reader, he/she would received one extra credit point to be added to his/her final grade. (The maximum grade was 100 points.) Reading books from the ESL Corner were assigned as required homework in three classes (Classes 7-9), and no extra points were offered. We had all the students who were present in the nine classes fill out a questionnaire (Appendix C) in the classroom at the end of June and the beginning of July.

In the handout "Pleasure Reading" (Appendix A), the students were introduced to the ESL Corner in the library and the graded readers and their four levels. It was emphasized that students should read whatever they were interested in reading and could read easily without a dictionary. We asked them to fill in a report sheet (Appendix B) for each book they read. The report sheet asked for the title, publisher, level, book size, number of pages, topic, characters, setting, amount of time spent reading the book, information about the content and level of difficulty of the language used in the book, and a summary and comments. In the questionnaire (Appendix C), we asked whether they had participated in this project (1), the reasons that they did or did not (2 & 3), the number of English books they had read before besides textbooks (4) and their comments on use of the ESL Corner (5 & 7), on the project (6), on extra points (8 & 9), on the best time to carry out this type of project (10), on the type of English books they want to read (11), and on the levels of books that they want to read (12).

Report sheets were filled out at home, and the questionnaire in class. Students were required to write their names on all the report sheets and the questionnaires. All the answers except the summary and comments were analyzed by computer.

## Analyses of Results

Table 1 shows the majors, years, and I.D. numbers of students enrolled in each class, the number of students who read books from the ESL Corner, and the number of report sheets and questionnaires collected.

Table 1: Subjects, Report, & Questionnaire

| Major | Year | Enrollment | Reader | Report | Quest |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 (economics) | 1 | 46 | 8 | 16 | 35 |
| 2 (economics) | 1 | 45 | 7 | 21 | 41 |
| 4 (electrical engineering) | 1 | 43 | 23 | 55 | 39 |
| 5 (sociology) | 1 | 42 | 12 | 22 | 40 |
| 6 (electrical engineering) | 1 | 42 | 19 | 39 | 38 |
| 7 (law) | 2 | 39 | 35 | 35 | 35 |
| 8 (commerce) | 1 | 46 | 46 | 51 | 46 |
| 9 (mixed) | 2 | 12 | 11 | 11 | 11 |
| | | 315 | 161 | 250 | 285 |

The total enrollment of the eight classes was 315, but because of dropping of the class or long-term absences, 300 students were involved in this project. Out of the 300 students, 161 read at least one book and turned in a report. Of the 207 students who were offered extra credit points, 69 students out of 207 did some reading. Of the 93 students who had reading as required homework, 92 students did the reading.

The students who did the reading in return for extra points turned in a total of 153 reports, an average of 2.2 per student and at most 10 reports. Eighty-seven students read one book for required homework, but five in Class 8 read two books. The levels of books read are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Points Offered & Books Read in Each Class

| class | condition | extra points (Ele. | LI | HI | Adv.) | no. of books read Ele. | LI | HI | Adv. | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 (economics) | extra cr. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 11 | 5 | 0 | 0 | 16 |
| 2 (economics) | extra cr. | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 9 | 8 | 3 | 1 | 21 |
| 4 (elec. engin.) | extra cr. | 2 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 49 | 5 | 1 | 0 | 55 |
| 5 (sociology) | extra cr. | 1 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 9 | 3 | 9 | 1 | 22 |
| 6 (elec. engin.) | extra cr. | 1 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 18 | 21 | 0 | 0 | 39 |
| total (classes 1-6) | | | | | | 96 | 42 | 13 | 2 | 153 |
| | | | | | | (62.7) | (27.5) | (8.5) | (1.3) | |
| 7 (law) | required homework | | | | | 18 | 12 | 4 | 1 | 35 |
| 8 (commerce) | required homework | | | | | 32 | 14 | 4 | 1 | 51 |
| 9 (mixed) | required homework | | | | | 9 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 11 |
| total (classes 7-9) | | | | | | 59 | 27 | 9 | 2 | 97 |
| | | | | | | (60.8) | (27.8) | (9.3) | (2.1) | |
| grand total | | | | | | 155 | 69 | 22 | 4 | 250 |
| | | | | | | (62.0) | (27.6) | (8.8) | (1.6) | |

( ) %

In addition, we collected 285 questionnaires. The reason we were able to collect so many was that all the students who attended the class on the day that the questionnaire was collected were requested to fill it out. All the students who were assigned reading as required homework filled out the questionnaire, and 193 out of the 207 students (about 93%) who were offered extra points filled out the questionnaire.

## Results of the Report Sheets

All the students except one in Class 7 who were assigned required homework read either one or two books. Among the students who were given the opportunity to read books for extra points, 23 read at least one book in Class 4. This was the highest rate of participation among the students who were offered extra credit points. In Class 1, only 8 students participated and this was the lowest rate. The distribution shown in Table 2 indicates that many students read the elementary books, and that the opportunity to earn 2 points seemed to help motivate students to read books. Sixty-two percent of the students read a total of 155 elementary books. Analysis of the results by ANOVA did not indicate that the number of extra points was a significant factor in influencing students' choice of the level of books. In other words, the students were reluctant to try more difficult levels, even though they were offered more extra credit points for them.

The distribution of the choice of levels for the students who read graded readers as assigned homework without extra credit and that of the students who were awarded extra points are similar. In the latter case, 40 students tried to earn 2 points, but only 2 tried for 3 points. There was some tendency for students to read higher level books for two or more points, but the difference was not significant.

Sixty-two percent of the readers read elementary books and 28% read low-intermediate books, that is, 90% of all the books read were at the elementary and low-intermediate levels. Comments made by the students in response to the questionnaire revealed that the reason for this inclination in the choice of levels was that students did not have confidence in their ability to read through higher-level books. Therefore, they started with either elementary or low-intermediate books.

We analyzed the 250 reports according to the four levels of the books. The results of each question for each level are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Results of Reports

| | Elementary | Low Intermediate | High Intermediate | Advanced | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Pages | 33 | 75 | 89 | 91 | 51 |
| Time Required | 1:40 | 5:47 | 6:50 | 4:50 | 3.19 |
| Interest | 4.15 | 4.90 | 5.00 | 4.25 | 4.44 |
| Maturity | 3.03 | 4.48 | 4.73 | 4.50 | 3.60 |
| Usefulness | 3.17 | 3.81 | 4.18 | 3.50 | 3.44 |
| Satisfaction | 3.90 | 4.54 | 4.91 | 4.50 | 4.18 |
| Recommendable | 4.00 | 4.41 | 4.32 | 4.50 | 4.15 |
| Organization | 3.79 | 4.56 | 4.64 | 5.00 | 4.09 |
| Grammar | 4.92 | 4.35 | 3.86 | 4.00 | 4.66 |
| Vocabulary | 4.85 | 4.28 | 3.55 | 4.50 | 4.57 |
| English | 4.94 | 4.25 | 3.68 | 3.75 | 4.62 |
| Knowledge | 4.54 | 4.09 | 3.91 | 4.75 | 4.36 |
| Comprehension | 4.90 | 4.34 | 3.86 | 4.00 | 4.64 |

The analysis showed a positive correlation between the levels of the books and the number of pages and between the level and amount of time students spent reading a book. As the level goes up the average number of pages increases from 33 to 91, and the average for all the books across the four levels is 51 pages. More time was spent reading books of higher levels, with an average of one hour and forty minutes spent for the elementary books, but an average of six hours and fifty minutes for the high-intermediate books. The average for all the books was three hours and nineteen minutes. Though the time required for the advanced level was shorter than that for the high-intermediate level, only four students had read the advanced books and only two of them did it for higher extra credit points. These students must have had a lot of confidence in their reading proficiency in English or a strong interest in reading. Advanced books were omitted from the following analyses across the levels, since these did not appear to be typical and there were only four students.

The rest of the questions analyzed here were done with a six-point semantic differential. Differences among levels were analyzed using ANOVA with the levels of the books as the independent variable and number of pages, time required for reading, and the answers to the 11 questions as dependent variables.

For the question on interest, 6 on the scale indicated interesting and 1 indicated boring. The average score for all the books across all levels was 4.44, which means that students found the books, on average, interesting. The students found that the higher the level of the book, the more interesting it was.

The average score for maturity was 3.60 (with 1 being childish and 6 being not childish), indicating that students found the books only moderately mature. The students found that the higher the level, the more mature. However, the elementary level was rated 3.03, which was rather immature.

Similarly, students found higher level books generally more useful. The average score for the elementary level was 3.17, which was negative, and the average of all the books was 3.44, which was slightly negative.

The students found books satisfactory at all levels, and the higher the level, the more satisfactory they found the books. The students showed a strong willingness to recommend books to their friends.

Though the students indicated that the elementary books were somewhat immature and not very useful, overall they found the books interesting, mature, useful, and satisfactory, and they expressed a willingness to recommend them to their friends. The higher the level, the more obvious these trends were, except for the question related to recommending the books, in which case, the differences across the levels were not significant.

The higher the level of the books, the better organized the books were perceived to be. The total average score was 4.09, indicating that overall, the books were well organized. In addition, the higher the level, the more difficult the grammar, vocabulary, and English as a whole were perceived to be. (Lower numbers indicate higher levels of difficulty.) However, total average scores for those three questions were above 4.5, indicating that overall students found the language in these books relatively easy. Differences among the levels in prior knowledge required were not significant (lower numbers indicate more prior knowledge required). The total average score was 4.36, indicating that a large amount of prior knowledge was not necessary for comprehending the books. The higher the level of books, the lower students perceived that their comprehension was. The average score for all books was 4.64, indicating that students, in general, seemed to feel that they could understand the books.

Except for questions about whether they would recommend the books to other students and whether prior knowledge was necessary for comprehension, differences among the levels were significant. That is, the students gave the higher level books better evaluations. Except for the maturity and usefulness of the elementary books, students responded positively. They responded that the language was more difficult for higher level books, but they still found the books easy enough to understand. The result was the same for comprehension. It was obvious that the higher the level, the more pages each book had and the more time students spent reading the book.

We ran regression with the number of pages as an independent variable and the other variables as dependent variables. We found the results significant for all variables except for the amount of prior knowledge required for comprehension. This means that as the number of pages increased, the students judged that the time required, their interest, the maturity and usefulness of the material, the degree of satisfaction, recommendability, the degree of organization, and the difficulty of grammar, vocabulary, overall English, and comprehension also increased.

We also ran regression with time required for reading as an independent variable and other variables as dependent variables. We found significant results for all variables except usefulness. Thus, the level of the book, the number of pages, and time required for reading influenced students' perceptions of interest, maturity, satisfaction, organization, and difficulty of grammar, vocabulary, English, and comprehension. Perceptions of usefulness were influenced by the level of books and the number of pages. Whether they would recommend the book was influenced by the number of pages and time spent for reading. Requirements of preknowledge were influenced by the number of pages and time.

### Results of Questionnaire

Of the 285 students who turned in the questionnaires, 154 had read at least one book, and 128 had not. The reasons for having read or not having read books are summarized in Table 4.

Table 4: Reasons for Reading or Not Reading

| Did not Read (128) | | | | | Read (157) | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1st | 2nd | Total | % | | 1st | 2nd | Total | % |
| 1. Busy | 70 | 15 | 85 | (34) | 1. Mandatory | 92 | 1 | 93 | (42) |
| 2. Not Mandatory | 13 | 37 | 50 | (20) | 2. Want Extra Points | 48 | 11 | 59 | (27) |
| 3. Uninteresting Books | 14 | 23 | 37 | (15) | 3. Want Read English | 7 | 15 | 22 | (10) |
| 4. Few Extra Points | 11 | 23 | 34 | (14) | 4. Friends are doing | 3 | 14 | 17 | ( 8) |
| 5. Others | 14 | 12 | 26 | (10) | 5. Found Interesting Book(s) | 5 | 12 | 17 | ( 8) |
| 6. Dislike English | 6 | 13 | 19 | ( 8) | 6. Others | 1 | 5 | 6 | ( 3) |
| | | | | | 7. Teacher's Recommendation | 1 | 4 | 5 | ( 2) |

The most common reason the students gave for not having read any books was being too busy (34%), the second was that it was not required (20%), the third was that there were no interesting books and the fourth was that they could earn only a few extra points. Only 8% of the students responded that they did not read any books because they did not like English. The most common reason that they did read books was that it was required, the second was that they wanted extra points, and the third was that they wanted to read English books. For students who were offered extra points, earning extra points had a much stronger effect than any other reason. The teacher's strong recommendation influenced only 2% of the students.

We administered a t test comparing students who read books and those who did not. The results appear in Table 5.

Table 5 Comparison between Readers and Non-readers

| | | No. of Books Read Previously | No. of Books Saw in Library | Chance | No. of Books Want to Read | Extra Points | No. of Points |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Non-readers | (128) | 3.02 | 3.28 | 3.09 | 2.24 | 4.09 | 12.3 |
| Readers | (157) | 3.29 | 6.95 | 3.76 | 2.76 | 5.32 | 16.6 |

The results of the t tests show that there were significant differences in all comparisons except for the number of English books read previously between students who chose to participate in this program and those who chose not to participate. However, in discussions with the students, we found that some students included supplementary readers used in high school or English books they had used in preparatory schools in the "number of books read previously," and therefore, this result may not be accurate.

Students who had read at least one book looked at an average of almost seven books in the library, and students who had not read any books looked at an average of 3.28 books. At minimum, this project gave the students a chance to be exposed to graded readers. The responses to the questionnaires indicated that the students were glad to have had this opportunity to read graded readers. They could not find enough books that they were interested in. They wanted very much to earn extra points for this project. The students who had read wanted more extra points (5.32) than the students who had not (4.09). Both groups wanted more than ten points for this project.

The students felt that the best time to carry out this type of project would be during vacations (49%). Ninety-four percent of the students responded that they would like to read English books sometime. The students were most interested in mysteries and adventures, and then in novels. They wanted to read low-intermediate books most, then elementary, high intermediate and advanced, in that order. Only 16 students responded that they would not want to read any English books at any level.

Students' first, second, and third choices of books to read are summarized in Table 6.

Table 6: Books Students Want to Read

| Books | 1st | 2nd | 3rd | Total | % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. mystery/adventure | 100 | 43 | 40 | 183 | (24) |
| 2. novels | 68 | 55 | 51 | 174 | (23) |
| 3. romance | 11 | 32 | 26 | 69 | ( 9) |
| 4. travel | 13 | 30 | 25 | 68 | ( 9) |
| 5. science fiction | 13 | 30 | 20 | 63 | ( 8) |
| 6. science | 17 | 22 | 24 | 63 | ( 8) |
| 7. foreign culture | 21 | 18 | 21 | 60 | ( 8) |
| 8. drama, poetry | 8 | 17 | 27 | 52 | ( 7) |
| 9. no preference | 14 | 1 | 3 | 18 | ( 2) |

In total, mysteries and adventures (24%) and novels (23%) received the highest ratings. The rest are almost the same, but drama and poetry were the lowest. This result corresponds with the survey at another university, which showed high interest in mystery and novels and low interest in poetry (Ito, Shimizu and Honda, 1986).

There may be similar tendencies in college students' preference for books. According to the survey by Ito, Shimizu and Honda, other categories students liked were sports, books which give useful information, and, especially among female students, books on cooking and embroidery.

The students wanted to read low-intermediate books most (47%), elementary books (27%) next, then high-intermediate books (17%) and advanced books (4%). Only sixteen students (6%) responded that they did not want to read any books of any level.

## Discussion and Recommendations for Future Research

Many students have a desire to read English books. This project lasted only four to six weeks, but one third of the students who were offered the opportunity to read books for extra credit points participated in the project. The students read a maximum of 10 books and 2.2 books on average. Of the students who were required to read one book as a homework assignment, five of them surprisingly read an extra book.

Whether the project was required as homework or done for extra points, 60% of the students read books at the elementary level (less than 1,000 words) and 27% read books of the low-intermediate level (less than 2,000 words). It appears that the students felt confident enough to read books only at these levels, perhaps because they did not have much experience reading English. Less than 10% of the students read high-intermediate books and 1-2% read advanced books.

Giving extra points helped motivate students to read English books. We offered a maximum of ten points, but the students who read books wanted an average of 16 points. The opportunity to earn two points seemed to help motivate them. It was effective to give two points for each book they read. Since more than 70% of the students wanted to read only elementary and low-intermediate books, we need to offer something besides extra points to encourage them to read high-intermediate and advanced books. Interestingly, fewer students wanted to read elementary books. Since the elementary books did not appear to satisfy students, it would be better to recommend at least low-intermediate books to college-level students.

Of the students who did not read any books, the most frequently expressed reason was that they were too busy. Therefore, it would be better to assign a project like this during vacations or at least to make the opportunity available over a longer period of time.

Clarke and Silberstein (1987) argue that prior knowledge and interest precede the difficulty level of language. In other words, when reading, interest in the topic or prior knowledge about it are often more important to comprehension than the difficulty of the language. Therefore, it is important to increase the number of books and the variety of topics available to students so that all students can find books that are of interest to them or books in fields that they are familiar with. Even the students who did not read any books looked at an average of three books in the library. It is unfortunate that they could not find any books they were interested in. Since the students expressed an interest in mysteries, adventures and novels, we should increase the number of books in these categories. The levels were determined by the vocabulary, but books at the higher levels also have more pages so that students had to spend more time reading them. Vocabulary, number of pages, and time required to read the book influenced students' perceptions of the books. The students felt that books of higher levels, books with more pages, and books that required more time to read were more interesting, more mature, more useful, more satisfactory, and more likely to be recommended. Books of higher levels were judged to be better organized, to have more difficult vocabulary, grammar and English in general, and to require more prior knowledge and to be less comprehensible. As a whole, the students thought that graded readers up to the low-intermediate level were easy enough to read.

It is useful to teach reading using graded readers. For teachers considering similar projects, the analysis of twelve series of graded readers by Hill and Thomas (1988a and 1988b) and the manual for graded readers including cassette tapes by Livingstone, Pike, Tadman, Tunnacliffe, and King (1987) are very good references.

As we have discussed, offering students an opportunity to read graded readers independently seems to be effective for improving their reading proficiency, and many students are interested in reading English books. If the opportunity were offered during the summer or winter vacations, more students would participate in it. One aspect of such a project that teachers need to be concerned about is how to motivate their students to participate in it.

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## Appendix A

### Pleasure Reading

It is fun to read English books. You will obtain information that you might not be able to get from Japanese books. You will find that some of the books which you may have read in their Japanese translations sound different and are sometimes more interesting than in their translated versions.

How many English books have you read since you started studying English several years ago? What! Not even one! Well, maybe that's not surprising. You may have been too busy studying to get good grades and pass college entrance exams. Now you have more free time. Why don't you read English books?

Some of you may have tried to read English books but may have given up. Some books are very difficult. There are many English books in our library, and you can try to read them if you have the confidence.

Even if you do not have the confidence to read the English books in the library, you can enjoy reading English books. There is an "English as a Second Language Corner" in the section of English books in our library. There are several shelves and about 600 books of various types. They include mysteries, biographies, classics, science fiction, plays, nonfiction, and adventure. They are divided into four levels according to the level of their vocabulary. The easiest level is elementary (E), which uses only 300-1,000 words. The second is low intermediate (LI), at the 1,000-2,000 word level. The third is high intermediate (HI), which has 2,000-3,000 words. The highest level, advanced (A) has 3,000-7,000 words. Even the books of the advanced level are much easier than ordinary English books.

If you decide to read some of these books, it is a good idea to read something you are interested in, the kind of book you might ordinarily read in Japanese. For example, if you like to read Sherlock Holmes books in Japanese translation, try reading one in English. Read the first couple of pages and find out if it is the right level for you. If it is too difficult, try something easier. The four levels will help you to decide which books to read.

After you choose a book, the most important thing is that you enjoy reading it. Just try to understand the plot. Even if you find some words you do not understand, don't use a dictionary immediately. Guess the meaning from the context. It is not important to understand everything written in the book. It is more important that you enjoy reading and understand the overall ideas. If you try reading several books, you will improve your reading comprehension.

## Appendix B

### Book Report

Class ________ Student # ________ Name ________
Title ________
Publisher ________ Publication Year ________
Level ____ Size ____ x ____ # of Pages ________
Topic ________
Main characters ________

Minor characters ________

Time period of the story ________
Location of the story ________
Time Required to Finish ________ hours ________ minutes

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Boring | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Interesting |
| Childish | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Not Childish |
| Useless | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Useful |
| Unsatisfactory | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Satisfactory |
| Not recommended | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Recommended |
| Organization | Poor | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Good |
| Grammar | Difficult | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Easy |
| Vocabulary | Difficult | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Easy |
| English (as a whole) | Difficult | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Easy |
| Prior knowledge assumed | Much | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Little |
| Comprehension (content) | Difficult | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | Easy |

Summary

Comments

## Appendix C

### ESL Reading Project Questionnaire

Class ____________ Student # ____________ Name ____________________

1. Did you take part in this project?
   a. No  b. Yes
2. If not, why not? Indicate first and second reason.
   ______ a. I was too busy.
   ______ b. I do not like English that much.
   ______ c. I could not find books I am interested in.
   ______ d. Extra credit was too little for the work.
   ______ e. It was not required.
   ______ f. other (                                        )
3. If so, why?
   ______ a. It was required.
   ______ b. I wanted to read something in English.
   ______ c. I wanted to get extra points.
   ______ d. My friends were doing it.
   ______ e. I found an interesting book.
   ______ f. My teacher strongly recommended it.
   ______ g. other (                                        )
4. Besides textbooks, how many English books have you read through (including the ones for this project)?
   0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 more
5. How many books in the ESL Corner did you look at?
   0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 more
6. Were you happy to have a chance to read an English book?
   No 1 2 3 4 5 6 Yes
7. Were there enough books available?
   No 1 2 3 4 5 6 Yes
8. Would you like to get extra points for this type of project?
   No 1 2 3 4 5 6 Yes
9. If so, how many points out of 100 final points are adequate for the work?
   0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 more ( )

10. When would you like to read English books?

a. never b. during vacation c. during the school year

d. in classes e. any time

11. What types of English books would you like to read?

Choose the first, second and third.

______ a. none

______ b. science fiction

______ c. science (non-fiction)

______ d. novels

______ e. mystery/adventure

______ f. romance

______ g. drama, poetry

______ h. travel

______ i. foreign culture (countries)

______ j. other ( )

12. Which level of English books would you like to read most?

a. none

b. elementary ( -1000 words)

c. low intermediate (1000-1800 words)

d. high intermediate (2000-3000)

e. advanced (3000- words)

13. Comments

# Appendix D

## English as a Second Language
## Graded Readers
## in the Doshisha University Library

Elementary Level (300-999 words)
Low Intermediate Level (1,000-1,999 words)
High Intermediate Level (2,000-2,999 words)
Advanced Level (3,000- words)

### Elementary Level (300-999)

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1001 | A Doctor's Day | Border, R. | CBS | | 350 |
| 1002 | A King's Love Story | Gripwell, K.R. | William Collins | | 500 |
| 1003 | A Radio Station | Goodman-Stephens, P. & B. | CBS | | 350 |
| 1004 | A Tale of Two Cities | Dickens, C. | Longman | 1991 | |
| 1005 | Adventure Story | Alexander, L.G. | Longman | | |
| 1006 | Adventures of Sindbad the Sailor | | Longman | | 500 |
| 1007 | Aladdin and Ali Baba | | OUP | | 750 |
| 1008 | Aladdin and his Magic Lamp | | Longman | | |
| 1009 | Ali Baba and the Forty Thieves | | Longman | | |
| 1010 | Alice in Wonderland | Carroll, L. | Longman | | 500 |
| 1011 | Alissa | Moore, C.J. | Heinemann | | |
| 1012 | Anna and the Fighter | Laird, E. | Heinemann | 1977 | 600 |
| 1013 | April Fool's Day | Alexander, L.G. | Longman | | 500 |
| 1014 | April in Moscow | Robley, S. | Longman | | |
| 1015 | Assassins | Taylor, D. | CBS | | 700 |
| 1016 | Babaric's Holiday | | Longman | | |
| 1017 | Beowulf | | Longman | | |
| 1018 | Between Two Worlds | Robley, S. | Longman | | |
| 1019 | Black Beauty | Sewell, A. | Longman | 1976 | 500 |
| 1020 | Blue Jeans | Axbey, S. | Longman | 1983 | 500 |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1021 | Blue Moon Valley | Robley, S. | Longman | | |
| 1022 | British Food | West, C. | CBS | | 700 |
| 1023 | Buffalo Hill | | OUP | | 750 |
| 1024 | Cambridge | Carter, R. | Longman | | 500 |
| 1025 | Car Thieves | Alexander, L.G. | Longman | | |
| 1026 | Catch a Thief | | Longman | | |
| 1027 | Catman in London | | Macmillan | | 450 |
| 1028 | Charles and Diana | Morris, M. | William Collins | | 500 |
| 1029 | Christmas Angel | Chiaro, Delia | Nelson | | |
| 1030 | Christopher Columbus | | OUP | | 750 |
| 1031 | Classic Stories from the Ballet | | Longman | | |
| 1032 | Clint Magee | Alexander, L.G. | Longman | | |
| 1033 | Crocodile! | Gropwell, K.R. | William Collins | | 300 |
| 1034 | Customs and Traditions in Britain | Rabley, S. | Longman | | 500 |
| 1035 | Dance | Johnston, L. | Longman | 1983 | 750 |
| 1036 | Dangerous Earth | Homeshaw, J. | William Collins | | 500 |
| 1037 | Dangerous Game | Harris, W. & Alexander, L.G. | Longman | 1977 | 750 |
| 1038 | Dangerous Journey | Cox, A. | Heinemann | 1976 | 600 |
| 1039 | David and Marianne | Dent, J. | Longman | | |
| 1040 | Dead in the Morning | Homeshaw, J. | William Collins | | 300 |
| 1041 | Dead Man's River | Laird, E. | Longman | | |
| 1042 | Dear Jan — Love Ruth | McIver, N. | Heinemann | 1982 | 600 |
| 1043 | Death of a Soldier | Prowse, P. | Heinemann | 1976 | 600 |
| 1044 | Detectives from Scotland Yard | Alexander, L.G. | Longman | | |
| 1045 | Dick Turpin | | Longman | | |
| 1046 | Dick Whittington | | Longman | | |
| 1047 | Dino's Day in London | Robley, S. | Longman | | |
| 1048 | Don Quixote | | OUP | | 750 |
| 1049 | Don Quixote and Sancho Panza | | Longman | | |
| 1050 | Double Fear and Other Short Stories | Escott, J. | Longman | | |
| 1051 | Down the River | Byrne, Donn | Longman | | |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1052 | Elvis Presley, King of Rock and Roll | Harmer, J. | Longman | | |
| 1053 | Everest the Hard Way | Bonington, C. & Grant, N. | Longman | | |
| 1054 | Fables and Fairy Tales | | Longman | | |
| 1055 | Fast Food | Jones, L. | Longman | 1983 | 500 |
| 1056 | Fast Money | Gropwell, K.R. | William Collins | | 300 |
| 1057 | Five Famous Fairy Tales | | Longman | | |
| 1058 | Five on a Treasure Island | Blyton, E. | Longman | | |
| 1059 | Flying Home | Robley, S. | Longman | | |
| 1060 | Fortune's Fool | Withers, Stacie | Nelson | | |
| 1061 | Foul Play | Alexander, L.G. | Longman | | 500 |
| 1062 | Four Short Stories | Morris, M., ed. | William Collins | | 300 |
| 1063 | Funny Stories | | OUP | | 750 |
| 1064 | Gandhi | Dyrne, D. | Longman | | 750 |
| 1065 | Gandhi – His Life was the Message | Byrne, D. | Eichosha | | 750 |
| 1066 | Garry's First Season | Mclean, A.C. | Longman | | 300 |
| 1067 | Girl Against the Jungle | Vincent, M. | Longman | 1978 | 500 |
| 1068 | Goldilocks and the Three Bears | | Longman | | |
| 1069 | Good Morning, Mexico! | Doelems, C. | Longman | | 750 |
| 1070 | Great British Ghosts | McIver, N. | Longman | 1982 | 750 |
| 1071 | Great Mysteries | Christie, A. | CBS | | 700 |
| 1072 | Green Island | Eyre, A.G. | Longman | | |
| 1073 | Green Screen and Other Stories | Findlay, Lisa | Nelson | | |
| 1074 | Gulliver's Travels | Swift, J. | Longman | | 850 |
| 1075 | Gulliver's Travels | | OUP | | 750 |
| 1076 | Hamad the Diver | | Longman | | |
| 1077 | Have You Got Your Ticket? | Serraillier, I. | Longman | 1972 | 500 |
| 1078 | Heidi | | Longman | 1991 | |
| 1079 | Heidi | | OUP | | 750 |
| 1080 | Hercules | | OUP | | 750 |
| 1081 | Illusions | Haines, S. | CBS | | 350 |
| 1082 | In the Beginning | Christopher, J. | Longman | | |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1083 | Inspector Holt and the Chinese Necklace | Tully, J. | William Collins | | 300 |
| 1084 | Inspector Holt and the Fur Van | Tully, John | William Collins | | 300 |
| 1085 | Inspector Holt: Cats in the Dark | Tully, J. | William Collins | | 300 |
| 1086 | Inspector Holt Gets His Man | Tully, J. | William Collins | | 500 |
| 1087 | Inspector Holt: The Bridge | Tully, J. | William Collins | | 500 |
| 1088 | Inspector Holt: Where is Bill Ojo? | Tully, John | William Collins | | 300 |
| 1089 | Inspector Thackeray Arrives | James, K. | Longman | | |
| 1090 | Inspector Thackeray Calls | James, K. & Mullen, L. | Longman | | |
| 1091 | Inventions | Border, R. | CBS | | 700 |
| 1092 | Island of Volcanoes | Byrne, D. | Longman | | |
| 1093 | It Never Snows in England | Ferguson, P. | Longman | | |
| 1094 | It's Trick! | Jones, L. | William Collins | | 300 |
| 1095 | Japanese Red and Other Stories | | Longman | | 500 |
| 1096 | Jaws 2 | | Longman | | 300 |
| 1097 | Jungle Book | | Longman | 1991 | |
| 1098 | Just Like Trisha | Chiaro, Delia | Nelson | | |
| 1099 | K's First Case | Alexander, L.G. | Longman | 1975 | 500 |
| 1100 | Kalulu the Hare | Worthington, F. | Longman | | |
| 1101 | Kate and the Clock | Dunkling, L. | Longman | | |
| 1102 | Kidnapped | Stevenson, R.L. | Longman | | |
| 1103 | King Arthur and His Knights | | OUP | | 750 |
| 1104 | King Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table | | Longman | | |
| 1105 | King Henry | | Longman | | |
| 1106 | Letters from the Dead | Homeshaw, J. | William Collins | | 300 |
| 1107 | Lisa in London | Victor, P. | Longman | | 300 |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1108 | Little Red Riding Hood | | Longman | | |
| 1109 | London | Dunkling, L. | Longman | | 300 |
| 1110 | Love is a Gimmick | Gallico, P. | Longman | 1982 | 750 |
| 1111 | Love is a Gimmick and Other Short Stories | Gallico, P. | Longman | | |
| 1112 | Lucky Number | Milne, J. | Heinemann | | |
| 1113 | Madame Tussaud's | Jones, L. | William Collins | | 500 |
| 1114 | Maisie and Dolphin | Robley, S. | Longman | | |
| 1115 | Man of Everest | | OUP | | 900 |
| 1116 | Marcel and the Mona Lisa | Robley, S. | Longman | | |
| 1117 | Marcel and the White Star | Robley, S. | Longman | | |
| 1118 | Marco | Esplen, M. | Heinemann | 1976 | 600 |
| 1119 | Marco Polo | | OUP | | 750 |
| 1120 | Mark and Jennifer | Dent, J. | Longman | | |
| 1121 | Mary Poppins | | OUP | | 900 |
| 1122 | Mike's Lucky Day | Dunkling, L. | Longman | | 300 |
| 1123 | Mr. Punch | Alexander, L.G. | Longman | | 300 |
| 1124 | Money for a Motorbike | Milne, J. | Heinemann | 1976 | 600 |
| 1125 | Moonfleet | Falkner, J.M. | Longman | | |
| 1126 | More Adventures of Robin Hood | | Longman | | |
| 1127 | More Funny Stories | | OUP | | 750 |
| 1128 | Muhammad Ali | Milton, P. | CBS | | 350 |
| 1129 | Muhammad Ali: King of the Ring | Tully, J. | William Collins | | 500 |
| 1130 | My Dear Aunt and a Morning in London | Byrne, D. | Longman | | |
| 1131 | New York! New York! | Freebairn, I. | Longman | 1986 | 750 |
| 1132 | Newspaper Boy | Escott, J. | Heinemann | 1979 | 600 |
| 1133 | Nick and the Motorbike | Byrne, D. | Longman | | |
| 1134 | Nine New Fairy Stories | | Longman | | |
| 1135 | North Sea Oil | Lawson, C. | CBS | | 350 |
| 1136 | Oliver Twist | Dickens, C. | William Collins | | 500 |
| 1137 | On the Road | Byrne, D. | Longman | | |
| 1138 | Operation Janus | Alexander, L.G. | Longman | | |
| 1139 | Operation Mastermind | Alexander, L.G. | Longman | | 750 |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1140 | Oxford | Adrian-Vallance, D. | Longman | 1983 | 500 |
| 1141 | Parliament | Carrier, M. | CBS | | 350 |
| 1142 | Pele, King of Football | Machin, N. | Longman | | |
| 1143 | Peter Pan | | OUP | | 900 |
| 1144 | Photo of the Tall Man | Robley, S. | Longman | | |
| 1145 | Pirates | | Longman | | |
| 1146 | Pop Festival | Serraillier, I. | Longman | | |
| 1147 | Pop Festival | Serraillier, I. | CBS | | 500 |
| 1148 | Prof. Boffin's Umbrella | Alexander, L.G. | Longman | | 500 |
| 1149 | Professor Boffin's Umbrella | Alexander, L.G. | Longman | | |
| 1150 | Puss in Boots | | Longman | | |
| 1151 | Rabbit's Friends | | Longman | | |
| 1153 | Rapunzel | | Longman | | |
| 1154 | Rich Man, Poor Man | Jupp, T.C. | Heinemann | 1976 | 600 |
| 1155 | Rip van Winkle & Another Story | Irving, W. | Eichosha | | 850 |
| 1152 | Rip Van Winkle and Other Stories | Irving, W. | Longman | 1991 | |
| 1156 | Rip van Winkle and the Legend of Sleepy Hollow | Irving, W. | Longman | | |
| 1157 | Robin Hood | | Longman | | |
| 1158 | Robin Hood | | OUP | | 750 |
| 1159 | Rockstars | McLean, A.C. | Longman | | |
| 1160 | Rollercoaster | | Longman | | 300 |
| 1161 | Round the World in Eighty Days | Verne, J. | Longman | | 750 |
| 1162 | Round the World in Eighty Days | Verne, J. | Longman | 1991 | |
| 1163 | Rumpelstiltskin | | Longman | | |
| 1164 | Sara Says No! | Whitney, N. | Heinemann | | |
| 1165 | Scotland | Hill, D. | Longman | | 500 |
| 1166 | Secret Garden | Burnett, F.H. | Longman | | 850 |
| 1167 | Seven Little Plays | | Longman | | |
| 1168 | Seven One-Act Plays | Byrne, D. | Longman | | 750 |
| 1169 | Shelley | Tomalin, Mary | Nelson | | |
| 1170 | Sherlock Holmes and the Dancing Men | Doyle, A.C. | Longman | | 750 |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1171 | Short Stories from Doctor Finlay's Casebook | Cronin, A.J. | Longman | | |
| 1172 | Simon and the Spy | Laird, E. | Longman | | |
| 1173 | Sleeping Beauty | | Longman | | |
| 1174 | Smuggler's Island | | OUP | | 750 |
| 1175 | Star Wars | | Longman | | 500 |
| 1176 | Stories from Ancient China | | Longman | | |
| 1177 | Stories from Lafcadio Hearn | | OUP | | 900 |
| 1178 | Sugar and Candy | Laird, E. | Heinemann | | |
| 1179 | Superace | Abbs, B. & Freebairn, I. | Longman | 1982 | 500 |
| 1180 | Survive and the Savage Sea | Robertson, D. & Doyle, A.C. | Longman | | 750 |
| 1181 | Tales from Arab History | | Longman | | |
| 1182 | Tales from Hans Andersen | | Longman | | 500 |
| 1183 | Tales from the Arabian Nights | | Longman | | |
| 1184 | Tales from the East | | Longman | | |
| 1185 | Taxi! | Homeshaw, J. | William Collins | | 300 |
| 1186 | Tennis | Slater, S. | CBS | | 700 |
| 1187 | The Battle of Newton Road | Dunkling, L. | Longman | | 300 |
| 1188 | The Black Pearl | | Longman | | |
| 1189 | The Black Rock | | Macmillan | | 450 |
| 1190 | The Blue Lagoon | Stacpoole, H.V. | Longman | | |
| 1191 | The Bottle Imp | Stevenson, R.L. | Asahi Press | | 600 |
| 1192 | The British Royal Family | Haines, S. & V. | CBS | | 350 |
| 1193 | The Canterbury Tales | Chaucer, G. | Longman | | |
| 1194 | The Canterville Ghost | Wilde, O. | William Collins | | 500 |
| 1195 | The Charlie Chaplin Story | Homeshaw, J. | William Collins | | 500 |
| 1196 | The Elvis Mystery | McRae, John | Nelson | | |
| 1197 | The Emperor's New Clothes | | Longman | | |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1198 | The Face on the Screen | Victor, P. | Longman | | 500 |
| 1199 | The Fireboy | Robley, S. | Longman | | |
| 1200 | The Flying Spy | Conx, A. | Longman | | |
| 1201 | The Four Muscians | | Longman | | |
| 1202 | The Garden | Laird, E. | Heinemann | 1979 | 600 |
| 1203 | The Gold Lasso | Robley, S. | Longman | | |
| 1204 | The Greek Heroes | West, M. | Longman | 1955 | 850 |
| 1205 | The Happy Prince and Other Stories | | OUP | | 600 |
| 1206 | The House near the Sea | Musman, R | Longman | | |
| 1207 | The House of the Seven Gables | Hawthorne, N. | Regents | | 750 |
| 1208 | The House on the Hill | Laird, E. | Heinemann | 1978 | 600 |
| 1209 | The Last Photo | Smith, B. | Longman | | |
| 1210 | The Lazy Farmer | | Longman | | |
| 1211 | The Life Story of Moominpappa | | OUP | | 900 |
| 1212 | The Long Tunnel | Milne, J | Heinemann | 1980 | 600 |
| 1213 | The Lost Love | Carew, J | Longman | 1978 | 500 |
| 1214 | The Lost Ship | Colbourn, S | Heinemann | | |
| 1215 | The Magic Garden | Gripwell, K R | William Collins | | 500 |
| 1216 | The Magic Barber | Milne, J | Heinemann | | |
| 1217 | The Magic Slippers | Milne, B.L. | Longman | 1951 | 850 |
| 1218 | The Midwich Cuckoos | Wyndham, J | Longman | | |
| 1219 | The Munich Connection | Cooper, P | Longman | | 750 |
| 1220 | The Music Line | Methold, K | Longman | | |
| 1221 | The Music Line and Other Stories | Methold, K | Longman | 1981 | 500 |
| 1222 | The Mysterious Island | Verne, J | Longman | | |
| 1223 | The Mystery of Loch Ness Monster | Dunkling, L | Longman | | 300 |
| 1224 | The Mystery of the Island | Verne, J | Longman | | |
| 1225 | The New Man and Other Stories | Findlay, Lisa | Nelson | | |
| 122[illegible] | The Pathfinders | Homeshaw, J | William Collins | | 300 |
| 1227 | The Poseidon Adventure | | Longman | | 300 |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1228 | The Prince and the Pauper | Twain, M. | Longman | | 850 |
| 1229 | The Prince and the Poor Boy | Twain, M. | William Collins | | 500 |
| 1230 | The Princess and the Pea | | Longman | | |
| 1231 | The Prisoners | Byrne, D. | Longman | | |
| 1232 | The Rest of our Lives and Other Short Stories | | Longman | | |
| 1233 | The Sheriff O'Neil | | Longman | | 300 |
| 1234 | The Sherlock Holmes Adventures | Doyle, A.C. | William Collins | | 500 |
| 1235 | The Silver Streak | | Longman | 1982 | 500 |
| 1236 | The Sky's the Limit | Whitney, N. | Heinemann | 1977 | 600 |
| 1237 | The Space Race | Arthur, J. | CBS | | 700 |
| 1238 | The Speckled Band | Doyle, A.C. | Asahi Press | | 600 |
| 1239 | The Spy and Other Stories | Victor, P. | Longman | | 750 |
| 1240 | The Stone Mother and Child | Heaton, J.P. | Longman | | |
| 1241 | The Story of Macbeth | Shakespeare, W. | William Collins | | 300 |
| 1242 | The Story of Scotland Yard | Jones, L. | William Collins | | 500 |
| 1243 | The Story of the World | Capel, W. | Heinemann | 1981 | 600 |
| 1244 | The Swiss Family Robinson | Wyss, J. R. | Longman | | |
| 1245 | The Thirty-Nine Steps | | Longman | | 300 |
| 1246 | The Three Musketeers | Dumas, A. | Longman | | |
| 1247 | The Titanic is Sinking | Gripwell, K.R. | William Collins | | 500 |
| 1248 | The Train Robber and Other Stories | Allen, Alexander | Nelson | | |
| 1249 | The Troy Stone | Robley, S. | Longman | | |
| 1250 | The Truth Machine | Whitney, N. | Heinemann | 1976 | 600 |
| 1251 | The Twin Chariot | Spiro, Jane | Nelson | | |
| 1252 | The Ugly Duckling | | Longman | | |
| 1253 | The Waterbabies | Kingsley, C. | Longman | | |
| 1254 | The Wild Boy | Wharry, David | Nelson | | |
| 1255 | The Wind in the Willows | Grahame, K. | Longman | | 850 |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1256 | The Wonderful Wizard of Oz | | OUP | | 600 |
| 1257 | The World Cup | Dean, M. | CBS | | 350 |
| 1258 | The World Under the Sea | Wright, A. & Buckby, M. | Longman | | |
| 1259 | The Wrestler | Gripwell, K.R. | William Collins | | 500 |
| 1260 | The Young King and Other Stories | Wilde, O. | Longman | | |
| 1261 | This is London | Prowse, P. | Heinemann | 1977 | 600 |
| 1262 | This is New York | Pennink, B. | Heinemann | 1980 | 600 |
| 1263 | This is San Francisco | Pennink, B. | Heinemann | 1982 | 600 |
| 1264 | This is Washington | Pennink, B. | Heinemann | 1981 | 600 |
| 1265 | Tin Lizzie | Homeshaw, J. | William Collins | | 300 |
| 1266 | Tinkers Farms | Robley, S. | Longman | | |
| 1267 | Tinkers Island | Robley, S. | Longman | | |
| 1268 | Two Roman Stories: Julius Caesar & Antony and Cleopatra | | William Collins | | 500 |
| 1269 | Ulster Story | Villeneuve, M. | Longman | | |
| 1270 | White Gold and Other Stories | Thompson, Helen | Nelson | | |
| 1271 | Who Wants to be a Star? | Iggulden, M. | Longman | | |
| 1272 | Who Was Nancy | McRae, John | Nelson | | |
| 1273 | Wind in the Willows | Grahame, K. | Longman | | |
| 1274 | Winning and Losing | Jupp, T.C. | Heinemann | 1986 | 600 |
| 1275 | Worth a Fortune | Alexander, L.G. | Longman | | 500 |
| 1276 | Wuthering Heights | Bronte, E. | Longman | 1985 | 500 |

**Low Intermediate Level (1,000-1,999)**

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2001 | 1992 | Donovan, Patrick | Nelson | | |
| 2002 | A Christmas Carol | Dickens, C. | Longman | | 1800 |
| 2003 | A Christmas Carol | Dickens, C. | William Collins | | 1500 |
| 2004 | A Christmas Carol and a Cricket on the Hearth | Dickens, C. | Longman | | |
| 2005 | A Dangerous Journey | | Longman | | |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2006 | A Journey Through Japan | | Macmillan | 1850 | |
| 2007 | A Man from Glasgow and Mackintosh | Maugham, S. | Heinemann | 1973 | 1600 |
| 2008 | A Marriage of Convenience and Other Stories | Maugham, W.S. | Heinemann | | |
| 2009 | A River Run Out of Eden | Marshall, J.V. | Heinemann | 1978 | 1100 |
| 2010 | A Scandal in Bohemia | Doyle, A.C. | Longman | 1976 | 1100 |
| 2011 | A Scandal in Bohemia & Other Stories | Doyle, A.C. | Eichosha | | 1100 |
| 2012 | A Taste of Britain | Smerdon, S. & Harvey, M. | Longman | 1981 | 1100 |
| 2013 | A Town Like Alice | Shute, N. | Heinemann | 1977 | 1600 |
| 2014 | A Woman's Place? | Vincent, M. | Longman | | 1100 |
| 2015 | Adventures of Sherlock Holmes | | OUP | | 1500 |
| 2016 | Airport International | Moynahan, B. | William Collins | | 1500 |
| 2017 | Airports | Church, S. | CBS | | 1050 |
| 2018 | Alice's Adventures in Wonderland | | Macmillan | | 1150 |
| 2019 | Alive | | OUP | | 1500 |
| 2020 | Alone on the Atlantic | Vincent, M. | Heinemann | 1982 | 1600 |
| 2021 | American Customs and Traditions | Tomscha, T. | Longman | | |
| 2022 | American Homes | Laird, E. | Longman | | |
| 2023 | American Music | Eagle, S. | Longman | | |
| 2024 | Americans at School | Moss, A. et al | Longman | | |
| 2025 | Americans on the Move | Laird, E. | Longman | | |
| 2026 | An American Tagedy | Dreiser, T. | William Collins | | 1000 |
| 2027 | . . . And now Miguel | Krumgold, J. | Yohan | | 1981 |
| 2028 | Andersen's Fairy Tales | Andersen, H.C. | Yohan | | 1987 |
| 2029 | Around the World in Eighty Days | | OUP | | 1000 |
| 2030 | Banker | Francis, D. | Heinemann | | |
| 2031 | Beautiful | Cragie, Stella | Nelson | | |
| 2032 | Best Short Stories of O. Henry | | Yohan | | 1000 |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2033 | Big Business in the World | Wymer, N. | Eichosha | | 1200 |
| 2034 | Billy Budd | Melville, H. | Yohan | | 1000 |
| 2035 | Black Boy | Wright, R. | Asahi Press | | 1100 |
| 2036 | Bob Geldof | Gray, C. | Longman | | |
| 2037 | Born Free | Adamson, J. | William Collins | | 1000 |
| 2038 | Braindox and Bull | Kenyon, M. | William Collins | | 1000 |
| 2039 | Brave New World | Huxley, A. | Longman | | 1800 |
| 2040 | Breakfast at Tiffany's | | OUP | | 1500 |
| 2041 | Bristol Murder | Prowse, P. | Heinemann | 1973 | 1600 |
| 2042 | British Theatre | King, J. | CBS | | 1750 |
| 2043 | Byron: Dangerous Hero | Brownlees, Nick | Nelson | | |
| 2044 | Call of the Wild | London, J. | Longman | | |
| 2045 | Captain Singleton | Defoe, D. | Asahi Press | | 1100 |
| 2046 | Cider with Rosie | Lee, L. | Longman | | |
| 2047 | Cinema | Carrier, M. & Evans, C. | CBS | | 1750 |
| 2048 | Cinema Stunts | Gripwell, K.R. | William Collins | | 1000 |
| 2049 | Claws | London, J. | Heinemann | 1979 | 1100 |
| 2050 | Climb a Lonely Hill | Norman, L. | William Collins | | 1000 |
| 2051 | Computers | Jones, L. | Longman | | 1100 |
| 2052 | Country Matters and Other Stories | Allen, Alexander | Nelson | | |
| 2053 | Custer's Gold | Ulyott, K. | William Collins | | 1000 |
| 2054 | Daddy Long Legs | | OUP | | 1500 |
| 2055 | David Copperfield | | OUP | | 1000 |
| 2056 | David Copperfield | Dickens, C. | William Collins | | 1000 |
| 2057 | David Copperfield | Dickens, C. | Longman | | |
| 2058 | Death be not Proud | Gunthur, J. | Yohan | | 1000 |
| 2059 | Desiree, Wife of Marshal Bernadotte | Selinko, A. | Longman | | |
| 2060 | Doctor Jekyll and Mr. Hyde | Stevenson, R.L. | Longman | | |
| 2061 | Don't Tell me What to Do | Hardcastle, M. | Heinemann | 1975 | 1100 |
| 2062 | Doomwatch: The World in Danger | Pedlar, K. & Davis, G. | Longman | | |
| 2063 | Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde | Stevenson, R.L. | Asahi Press | | 1800 |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2064 | Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde | Stevenson, R.L. | William Collins | | 1500 |
| 2065 | Dracula | Stoker, B. | Longman | 1978 | 1200 |
| 2066 | Dracula | Stoker, B. | Heinemann | 1982 | 1600 |
| 2067 | Edgar Allan Poe: Storyteller | Poe, E.A. | Yohan | 1983 | |
| 2068 | Eight Ghost Stories | Burton, S. H. | Longman | | |
| 2069 | Elephant Walk | Standish, R. | Heinemann | 1980 | 1600 |
| 2070 | Emil and the Detectives | Kastner, E. | Longman | 1950 | 1200 |
| 2071 | Emma | | OUP | | 1400 |
| 2072 | Emma and I | Hocken, S. | William Collins | | 1000 |
| 2073 | Energy | Bell, T. | CBS | | 1400 |
| 2074 | Exploring our Past | | Macmillan | 1850 | |
| 2075 | Exploring our World | | Macmillan | 1850 | |
| 2076 | Exploring Space | | Macmillan | 1850 | |
| 2077 | Far from the Madding Crowd | | OUP | | 1500 |
| 2078 | Five Ghost Stories | Huggins, V., ed. | William Collins | | 1000 |
| 2079 | Five Great Plays of Shakespeare | | Longman | | 1500 |
| 2080 | Fixation | | OUP | | 1000 |
| 2081 | Fleet Street | Carrier, M. & Hall, Y. | CBS | | 1400 |
| 2082 | Football | Dean, M. | CBS | | 1050 |
| 2083 | Football | Scott-Forbes, D. | Heinemann | 1974 | 1600 |
| 2084 | Footprints in the Jungle and Two Other Stories | Maugham, S. | Heinemann | 1975 | 1600 |
| 2085 | For Your Eyes Only | Fleming, I. | Longman | | |
| 2086 | Frankenstein | Shelley, M. | Longman | | 1200 |
| 2087 | Frankenstein | Shelley, M. | Heinemann | 1986 | 1100 |
| 2088 | From Russia with Love | | OUP | | 1000 |
| 2089 | Going it Alone | | Macmillan | | 1850 |
| 2090 | Gold Robbery and Mine Mystery | Musman, R. | Longman | | |
| 2091 | Great Disasters | | Macmillan | | 1850 |
| 2092 | Great Expectations | | OUP | | 1000 |
| 2093 | Great Men and Women | Leavitt, L. W. | Longman | | |
| 2094 | Great Plays of Shakespeare | | Longman | 1991 | |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2095 | Guess What? | | Macmillan | | 1150 |
| 2096 | Gunshot Grand Prix | Rutherford, D. | William Collins | | 1000 |
| 2097 | Hard Times | Dickens, C. | Longman | | |
| 2098 | He Cannot Really Read | | OUP | | 1000 |
| 2099 | High Stakes | | OUP | | 1000 |
| 2100 | Hijacked | | OUP | | 1000 |
| 2101 | How Happily She Laughs and Other Poems | | Longman | | |
| 2102 | How to be a Journalist | Stein, M.L. | Yohan | | 1000 |
| 2103 | Huckleberry Finn | Twain, M. | William Collins | | 1500 |
| 2104 | I Can Jump Puddles | Marshall, A. | Longman | | |
| 2105 | I, Robot | | OUP | | 1000 |
| 2106 | I'm the King of the Castle | Hill, S. | Heinemann | 1982 | 1600 |
| 2107 | In the Frame | | OUP | | 1000 |
| 2108 | Inspector Thackeray Investigates | James, K. & Mullen, L. | Longman | | |
| 2109 | Introducing Britain | | Macmillan | | 1500 |
| 2110 | Islam | Quinlivan, V. | CBS | | 1400 |
| 2111 | Island of the Blue Dolphins | O'Dell, S. | Longman | | |
| 2112 | Jane Eyre | | OUP | | 1500 |
| 2113 | Jane Eyre | Bronte, C. | Longman | 1970 | 1500 |
| 2114 | Jane Eyre | Bronte, C. | William Collins | | 1500 |
| 2115 | Joseph Pulitzer: Front Page Pioneer | Noble, I. | Yohan | | 1000 |
| 2116 | Kidnapped | | OUP | | 1000 |
| 2117 | Kidnapped | Stevenson, R.L. | Longman | | |
| 2118 | King Solomon's Mines | Haggard, H.R. | William Collins | | 1500 |
| 2119 | King Solomon's Mines | Hoggard, H.R. | Longman | | |
| 2120 | Landslide | Bagley, D. | William Collins | | 1500 |
| 2121 | Life with Father | Day, C. | Eichosha | | 1000 |
| 2122 | Life with Father | Day, C. | Yohan | | 1966 |
| 2123 | Little Women | | OUP | | 1500 |
| 2124 | Little Women | Alcott, L.M. | Longman | 1957 | 1500 |
| 2125 | Little Women | | OUP | | 1400 |
| 2126 | Lorna Doone | Blackmore, R.D. | Longman | | |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2127 | Love for Lydia | | OUP | | 1500 |
| 2128 | Love Story | | OUP | | 1500 |
| 2129 | Love Story | Henry, O. | OUP | | 1500 |
| 2130 | Love Story | Segal, E. | OUP | | 1500 |
| 2131 | Love Takes Time | Herring, Lucy | Nelson | | |
| 2132 | Madeleine | Roberts, C. | Heinemann | 1978 | 1100 |
| 2133 | Maimunah | Hill, D. | William Collins | | 1000 |
| 2134 | Martin Luther King | Schlored, V. et al | Longman | | |
| 2135 | Me, Myself and I | Jones, L. | Longman | 1975 | 1100 |
| 2136 | Meet Me in Istanbul | Chisholm, R. | Heinemann | 1979 | 1600 |
| 2137 | Men and History | Dixon, R. & Fox, H. | Regents | | 1600 |
| 2138 | Men and Machines | Burlingame, R. | Yohan | 1982 | |
| 2139 | Moby Dick | Melville, H. | Regents | | 1000 |
| 2140 | Moby Dick | Melville, H. | Longman | | |
| 2141 | Modern Short Stories | Thornley, G.C. | Longman | 1967 | 1500 |
| 2142 | Moonraker | | OUP | | 1000 |
| 2143 | More than a Game | | Macmillan | | 1500 |
| 2144 | Mother Teresa | Gray, C. | Longman | | |
| 2145 | Motor Racing | Price, R. | CBS | | 1050 |
| 2146 | Murders in the Rue Morgue and the Gold Bug | Poe, E.A. | Regents | | 1200 |
| 2147 | My Cousin Rachel | Maurier, D.D. | Heinemann | 1980 | 1600 |
| 2148 | My Name is Aram | Saroyan, W. | Yohan | | 1000 |
| 2149 | My Name is Aram | Saroyan W. | Yohan | | 1961 |
| 2150 | No Longer at Ease | Achebe, C. | Heinemann | | |
| 2151 | Nothing to Fear and Other Short Stories | | Longman | | |
| 2152 | Nothing is the Number When You Die | Fleming, J. | William Collins | | 1500 |
| 2153 | O. Henry's American Scenes | | Yohan | | 1000 |
| 2154 | Oil | Wymer, N. | Longman | | |
| 2155 | Old Mali and the Boy | Sherman, D.R. | Heinemann | 1973 | 1600 |
| 2156 | Oliver Twist | | OUP | | 1500 |
| 2157 | Oliver Twist | Dickens, C. | Longman | | |
| 2158 | On the Beach | Shute, N. | Longman | | 1500 |
| 2159 | Oxford and Cambridge | Tarner, M. | Heinemann | 1981 | 1100 |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2160 | Pride and Prejudice | Austen, J. | William Collins | | 1500 |
| 2161 | Pride and Prejudice | Austen, J. | Longman | | 1991 |
| 2162 | Princess Moonlight | | Macmillan | | 1850 |
| 2163 | Quiet as a Nun | | OUP | | 1000 |
| 2164 | Race to the South Pole | Jones, L. & Brett, B. | Longman | | |
| 2165 | Road to Nowhere | Milne, J. | Heinemann | 1975 | 1100 |
| 2166 | Robinson Crusoe | Defoe, D. | Longman | | 1200 |
| 2167 | Robinson Crusoe | | OUP | | 1000 |
| 2168 | Rock Music | Carrier, M. & Pacione, A. | CBS | | 1050 |
| 2169 | Room 13 and Other Ghost Stories | James, M.R. | Heinemann | | |
| 2170 | Rough Justice | Cadman, Rita | Nelson | | |
| 2171 | Scottish Adventure | Chisholm, R. | Heinemann | 1977 | 1600 |
| 2172 | Selected Stories by Saroyan | | OUP | | 1200 |
| 2173 | Sent Away | Goodwin, John | Nelson | | |
| 2174 | Seven Detective Stories | | Longman | | 1800 |
| 2175 | Shane | Schaefer, J. | Yohan | | 1000 |
| 2176 | Shane | Schaefer, J. | Heinemann | 1973 | 1600 |
| 2177 | Sherlock Holmes Stories | | OUP | | 1000 |
| 2178 | Short Stories of Crime and Detection | Maugham, W.S. & others | Eichosha | | 1800 |
| 2179 | Silas Marner | Eliot, G. | Longman | | |
| 2180 | Silver Blaze and Other Stories | Doyle, A.C. | Heinemann | 1987 | 1100 |
| 2181 | Singing Wind and Other Stories | | Longman | | |
| 2182 | Six American Stories | Vymer, N., ed. | William Collins | | 1000 |
| 2183 | Six Tales of Fear | Poe, E.A. | Yohan | | 1000 |
| 2184 | Social Class in Brotaom | Merriweather, K. | CBS | | 1750 |
| 2185 | Star for a Day | Prowse, P. | Heinemann | 1976 | 1100 |
| 2186 | Stories from Shakespeare | Heaton, J.B. & West, M. | Eichosha | | 1000 |
| 2187 | Stories from Shakespeare | | Longman | 1966 | 1200 |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2188 | Stories of Mystery and Imagination | Poe, E.A. | Longman | | 1500 |
| 2189 | Strange Stories | Robinson, P. | CBS | | 1400 |
| 2190 | Strike the Father Dead | Wain, J. | Longman | | |
| 2191 | Summer Lightning | | OUP | | 1500 |
| 2192 | Surprises of Nature | West, C. | CBS | | 1400 |
| 2193 | Tales from the Arabian Nights | | OUP | | 1400 |
| 2194 | Tales of Goha | Caplan, L. | Heinemann | 1973 | 1600 |
| 2195 | Tales of Horror | Stoker, B. | Heinemann | 1983 | 1100 |
| 2196 | Tales of Mystery and Imagination | Poe, E.A. | Longman | | |
| 2197 | Tales of Ten Worlds | Clarke, A.C. | Heinemann | | |
| 2198 | Teacher of Light | Waite, H.E. | Yohan | 1980 | |
| 2199 | Tess of the D'Urbervilles | | OUP | | 1500 |
| 2200 | The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn | Twain, M. | Longman | 1991 | |
| 2201 | The Adventures of Tom Sawyer | Twain, M. | Longman | 1965 | 1500 |
| 2202 | The Adventures of Tom Sawyer | Twain, M. | Yohan | 1974 | |
| 2203 | The African Child | Laye, C. | William Collins | | 1500 |
| 2204 | The 'African Queen' | Forester, C. S. | Longman | | |
| 2205 | The Angry Valley | Grimshaw, N. | Longman | | |
| 2206 | The Beautiful and Damned | Fitzgerald, F.S. | Heinemann | | |
| 2207 | The Best Sherlock Holmes Stories | Doyle, A.C. | Eichosha | | 1100 |
| 2208 | The Big Catch | Mackenzie, David | Nelson | | |
| 2209 | The Big Sleep | | OUP | | 1000 |
| 2210 | The Birds and Other Stories | Mourier, D. | Longman | | |
| 2211 | The Black Case | | OUP | | 1000 |
| 2212 | The Black Cat | Milne, J. | Heinemann | 1975 | 1100 |
| 2213 | The Black Tulip | Dumas, A. | Longman | | |
| 2214 | The Book of British Humor | | Longman | | 1100 |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2215 | The Boy Who Was Afraid | Sperry, A. | Heineman | | |
| 2216 | The British Royal Family | Collins, A. | Heinemann | 1983 | 1100 |
| 2217 | The Call of the Wild | London, J. | Asahi Press | | 1800 |
| 2218 | The Call of the Wild | | Longman | 1991 | |
| 2219 | The Canterville Ghost and other Stories | | Longman | 1991 | |
| 2220 | The Case of the Lonely Lady | Milne, J. | Heineman | | |
| 2221 | The Children of the New Forest | Marryat, C. | Longman | 1937 | 1200 |
| 2222 | The City | Colley, J. | CBS | | 1050 |
| 2223 | The Clever Shoemaker | | Longman | | |
| 2224 | The Cleverest Person in the World | Whitney, N. | Heinemann | 1979 | 1100 |
| 2225 | The Common Market | Haines, S. | CBS | | 1050 |
| 2226 | The Count of Monte Cristo | Dumas, A. | Longman | | 1500 |
| 2227 | The Dancing Murder | Mackenzie, David | Nelson | | |
| 2228 | The Day Dreamer | Wharry, David | Nelson | | |
| 2229 | The Diamond as Big as the Ritz and Other Stories | Fitzgerald, F.S. | Longman | | |
| 2230 | The Diamond Hunters | Smith, W. | Heinemann | | |
| 2231 | The Diary of Anne Frank | | OUP | | 1200 |
| 2232 | The Escape and Other Stories | Maugham, W.S. | Heinemann | | |
| 2233 | The Eye of the Tiger | Smith, W. | Heinemann | 1987 | 1600 |
| 2234 | The Forger | O'Neill, R. | Longman | | 1100 |
| 2235 | The Franchise Affair | Tey, J. | Heinemann | | |
| 2236 | The Goalkeeper's Revenge | Maughton, B. | Heinemann | 1976 | 1100 |
| 2237 | The Go-Between | Hartley, L.P. | Longman | | |
| 2238 | The Great Gatsby | Fitzgerald, S. | Heinemann | 1979 | 1600 |
| 2239 | The Hairless Mexican and the Traitor | Maugham, S. | Heinemann | 1974 | 1600 |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2240 | The Happy Prince and other Stories | Wilde, O. | Yohan | 1987 | |
| 2241 | The Happy Prince | | OUP | | 1000 |
| 2242 | The Hoosier Schoolmaster | Eggleston, E. | Regents | | 1800 |
| 2243 | The House of Seven Gables | Hawthorne, N. | Yohan | | 1000 |
| 2244 | The Human Comedy | Saroyan, W. | Eichosha | | 1000 |
| 2245 | The Human Comedy | Saroyan, W | Yohan | 1973 | |
| 2246 | The Hunchback of Notre Dame | Hugo, V. | Longman | | |
| 2247 | The Kennedys | Haines, S. &<br>Haines, V. | CBS | | 1050 |
| 2248 | The Kon-Tiki Expedition | Heyerdahl, T. | Longman | | |
| 2249 | The Lady Vanishes | | OUP | | 1000 |
| 2250 | The Land and the People | Dixon, R. | Regents | | 1200 |
| 2251 | The Lovely Dady and Other Stories | Lawrence, D.H. | William Collins | | 1500 |
| 2252 | The L-Shaped Room | Banks, L.R. | Longman | | |
| 2253 | The Man Who Fell to Earth | | OUP | | 1050 |
| 2254 | The Man with No Name | Davies, E. &<br>Town, P. | Heinemann | 1978 | 1100 |
| 2255 | The Mayor of Casterbridge | | OUP | | 1500 |
| 2256 | The Mill on the Floss | Eliot, G. | Longman | | |
| 2257 | The Moon is Down | Steinbeck, J. | Heinemann | 1975 | 1600 |
| 2258 | The Mysterious Mask | Cragie, Stella | Nelson | | |
| 2259 | The Narrow Path | Selormey, F. | Heinemann | | |
| 2260 | The Olympics | Alvey, A. | CBS | | 1400 |
| 2261 | The Osterman Weekend | | OUP | | 1000 |
| 2262 | The Outcasts of Poker Flat, the Luck of Roaring Camp and Other Stories | Harte, B. | Regents | | 1600 |
| 2263 | The Pathfinder | Cooper, J.F. | Regents | | 1400 |
| 2264 | The Peacemakers | Forbes, D. | Heinemann | 1981 | 1600 |
| 2265 | The Pearl | Steinbeck, J. | Asahi Press | | 1800 |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2266 | The Pearl | Steinbeck, J. | Heinemann | 1974 | 1600 |
| 2267 | The Pop Industry | Carrier, M. | CBS | | 1750 |
| 2268 | The Poseidon Adventure | | OUP | | 1000 |
| 2269 | The Price of Friendship | Higgins, Anna | Nelson | | |
| 2270 | The Prisoner of Zenda | Hope, A. | Longman | | |
| 2271 | The Promise | Buccleuch, S. | Heinemann | 1977 | 1100 |
| 2272 | The Queen of Death | Milne, J. | Heinemann | 1979 | 1600 |
| 2273 | The Queen of Spaces and Other Stories | Pushkin, A. | Heinemann | | |
| 2274 | The Razor's Edge | Maugham, S. | Heinemann | 1975 | 1600 |
| 2275 | The Red Pony | Steinbeck, J. | Heinemann | 1976 | 1100 |
| 2276 | The Return of Sherlock Holmes | Doyle, A.C. | Longman | 1979 | 1200 |
| 2277 | The Return of Sherlock Holmes | Doyle, A.C. | Eichosha | | 1200 |
| 2278 | The Rose of Tibet | | OUP | | 1000 |
| 2279 | The Runaways | Canning, V. | Heinemann | 1975 | 1100 |
| 2280 | The Secret Sharer and Other Sea Stories | Conrad, J. | William Collins | | 1500 |
| 2281 | The Sign of Four | Doyle, A.C. | Heinemann | 1983 | 1600 |
| 2282 | The Smuggler | Plowright, P. | Heinemann | 1974 | 1600 |
| 2283 | The Snow Goose | Gallico, P. | Longman | 1981 | 1200 |
| 2284 | The Sound of Music | | OUP | | 1500 |
| 2285 | The Space Invaders | Matthews, G. | Heinemann | 1980 | 1600 |
| 2286 | The Speckled Band and Other Stories | Doyle, A.C. | Heinemann | 1986 | 1600 |
| 2287 | The Story of Frankenstein | | Macmillan | | 1500 |
| 2288 | The Stranger | Whitney, N. | Heinemann | 1977 | 1100 |
| 2289 | The Summer Visitor | Cadman, Rita | Nelson | | |
| 2290 | The Sun Goes Free and Other Poems | | Longman | | |
| 2291 | The Supernatural | King, J. | CBS | | 1500 |
| 2292 | The Swiss Family Robinson | Wyss, J. | Longman | | |
| 2293 | The Third Man | Greene, G. | Asahi Press | | 1800 |
| 2294 | The Thirty-Nine Steps | Buchan, J. | Longman | 1966 | 1100 |
| 2295 | The Time Machine | Wells, H.G. | Longman | | |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2296 | The Two Million Dollar Loan | Pearson, C. | Heinemann | 1981 | 1600 |
| 2297 | The Valentine Generation | Wain, J. et al | Longman | 1980 | 1500 |
| 2298 | The Valentine Generation and Other Stories | | Longman | | |
| 2299 | The Verger and Other Stories | Maugham, S. | Heinemann | 1975 | 1100 |
| 2300 | The Walker After Death | Ellis-Jones, B. | Heinemann | 1979 | 1600 |
| 2301 | The White Mountains | Christopher, J. | Longman | | |
| 2302 | The White South | Innes, H. | William Collins | | 1500 |
| 2303 | The Wizard of Oz | Baum, L.F. | Yohan | 1987 | |
| 2304 | The Woman in Black | Hill, S. | Heinemann | | |
| 2305 | The Woman Who Disappeared | Prowse, P. | Heinemann | 1975 | 1600 |
| 2306 | The World in Winter | | OUP | | 1000 |
| 2307 | The Young Hunter | Murphy, R. | Yohan | | 1000 |
| 2308 | The Young King and Other Stories | Wilde, O. | Longman | | 1200 |
| 2309 | They Dared to Do It | | Macmillan | | 1850 |
| 2310 | Things Fall Apart | Achebe, C. | Heinemann | 1974 | 1600 |
| 2311 | Three Adventures of Sherlock Holmes | Doyle, A.C. | Longman | | 1500 |
| 2312 | Three Adventures of Sherlock | | | | |
| 2313 | Holmes | Doyle, A.C. | Eichosha | | 1500 |
| 2314 | Three English Kings | Shakespeare, W. | William Collins | | 1000 |
| 2315 | Three Fantastic Love Stories | Dickens, C. et al | Asahi Press | | 1500 |
| 2316 | Three Men in a Boat | Jerome, J.K. | Asahi Press | | 1100 |
| 2317 | Three Mystery Plays | | Longman | | |
| 2318 | Thunderball | Fleming, I. | Longman | | |
| 2319 | Tiger! | Sankhala, K. | William Collins | | 1500 |
| 2320 | To Catch a Thief | | OUP | | 1000 |
| 2321 | Tom Brown's Schooldays | Hughes, T. | Longman | | |
| 2322 | Tom Sawyer | Twain, M. | Asahi Press | | 1100 |
| 2323 | Tomorrow's World | Riche, C. | CBS | | 1050 |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2324 | Treasure Island | Stevenson, R.L. | Asahi Press | | 1800 |
| 2325 | Treasure Island | | OUP | | 1000 |
| 2326 | Treasure Island | Stevenson, R.L. | Longman | | |
| 2327 | True or Not | Thornley, G.C. | Eichosha | | 1500 |
| 2328 | Upstairs, Downstairs | | OUP | | 1500 |
| 2329 | Vanity Fair | Thackeray, W. | Longman | 1991 | |
| 2330 | Visiting the USA | Lainer, A.R. | Yohan | | 1000 |
| 2331 | Walkabout | Marshall, V. | Heinemann | 1979 | 1600 |
| 2332 | When Rain Clouds Gather | Head, B. | Heinemann | | |
| 2333 | White Fang | London, J. | Longman | | |
| 2334 | Wild America | Cox, T. | Longman | | |
| 2335 | William Shakespeare | Barnaby, D. | CBS | | 1400 |
| 2336 | Winds of Change | | Longman | | |
| 2337 | World Topics Reading (I) | Lewis, R. | Eichosha | | 1000 |
| 2338 | World Topics Reading (II) | Lewis, R. | Eichosha | | 1500 |
| 2339 | Wuthering Heights | | OUP | | 1500 |
| 2340 | Wuthering Heights | Bronte, E. | Longman | | |
| 2341 | You Only Live Twice | | OUP | | 1000 |
| 2342 | Your Choice? | Williams, A. | Longman | | 1500 |
| 2343 | Z for Zachariah | O'Brien, R. | Heinemann | 1982 | 1100 |

**High Intermediate Level (2000-2999)**

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 3001 | A Book of Shorter Stories | | Longman | | |
| 3002 | A Christmas Carol | | OUP | | 2100 |
| 3003 | A Christmas Carol | Dickens, C. | Yohan | 1986 | |
| 3004 | A Passage to India | | Macmillan | | |
| 3005 | A Tale of Two Cities | | Macmillan | | |
| 3006 | A Tale of Two Cities | Dickens, C. | Longman | | |
| 3007 | A Very Good Way of Making Money | Haines, Simon | Nelson | | |
| 3008 | Advances of Modern Science | Berger, M. | Yohan | | 2000 |
| 3009 | Airport | Hailey, A. | Longman | | |
| 3010 | Alice's Adventures in Wonderland | | OUP | | 2100 |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 3011 | Among the Elephants | Douglas-Hamilton | William Collins | | 2000 |
| 3012 | An Anthology of English Humor | Shaw, B. & Others | Asahi Press | | 2400 |
| 3013 | Around the World in Eighty Days | Verne, J. | Yohan | 1983 | |
| 3014 | Best Short Stories of D. H. Lawrence | | Longman | | |
| 3015 | Best Short Stories of Thomas Hardy | | Longman | | |
| 3016 | Bitter Fruit | Allen, Alexander | Nelson | | |
| 3017 | Black Beauty | | Macmillan | | |
| 3018 | Bleak House | Dickens, C. | Heinemann | 1976 | 2200 |
| 3019 | British and American Short Stories | | Longman | | |
| 3020 | Call for the Dead | Carre, J. | Longman | | |
| 3021 | Come and Get Me and Other Ghost Stories | Bullard, P. | Longman | | 2000 |
| 3022 | Cosmopolitans | Maugham, S. | Asahi Press | | 2400 |
| 3023 | Daddy Long-Legs | Webster, J. | Yohan | | 2000 |
| 3024 | Darwin and Evolution | Barnaby, D. | CBS | | 2100 |
| 3025 | Dead Men's Shoes and Other Stories | | Longman | | |
| 3026 | Doctor in the House | Gordon, R. | Longman | | |
| 3027 | Doctor Zhivago | Pasternak, B. | William Collins | | 2500 |
| 3028 | Dr Jekyll & Mr Hyde | | Macmillan | | |
| 3029 | Edgar Allan Poe | Porges, I. | Yohan | | 2000 |
| 3030 | Experiences of Terror | John, R., ed. | William Collins | | 2000 |
| 3031 | Famous Women of the 20th Century | | Macmillan | | 2200 |
| 3032 | Far From the Madding Crowd | Hardy, T. | Longman | | |
| 3033 | Five Great Inventors | | Macmillan | | 2200 |
| 3034 | Geordie | Walker, D. | William Collins | | 2000 |
| 3035 | Golden Trails | Harte, B. | Yohan | | 2000 |
| 3036 | Good-bye, Mr. Chips | Hilton, J. | Yohan | | 2000 |
| 3037 | Good-bye, Mr. Chips | | Macmillan | | |
| 3038 | Great American Detective Stories | Dalley, J. | Longman | | 2000 |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 3039 | Great Expectations | | OUP | | 2100 |
| 3040 | Great Expectations | | Macmillan | | |
| 3041 | Greek Myths | Bulfinch, T. | Yohan | 1985 | |
| 3042 | Gulliver's Travels | | OUP | | 2100 |
| 3043 | Gulliver's Travels | | Macmillan | | |
| 3044 | Hard Times | Dickens, C. | William Collins | | 2500 |
| 3045 | Harry's Game | Seymour, G. | William Collins | | 2500 |
| 3046 | Hijack and Other Short Stories | | Longman | | |
| 3047 | Hotel | Hailey, A. | Longman | | |
| 3048 | House of a Thousand Lanterns | Holt, V. | William Collins | | 2500 |
| 3049 | How to be a Leader | Uris, A. | Yohan | | 2000 |
| 3050 | How to Read a Book | Adler, M.J. & Doren, C.V. | Yohan | | 2000 |
| 3051 | Huckleberry Finn | Twain, M. | Regents | | 2400 |
| 3052 | I Know Who I Love and Other Stories | Jackson, S. | Yohan | | 2000 |
| 3053 | I Know My Love | Gaskin, C. | William Collins | | 2000 |
| 3054 | I Spy | | Macmillan | | 2200 |
| 3055 | In the Shadow of Man | Goodall, J. | William Collins | | 2500 |
| 3056 | Inside the Atom | Asimov, I. | Yohan | | 2000 |
| 3057 | Inspector Ghote Breaks an Egg | Keating, H.R.F. | William Collins | | 2500 |
| 3058 | Ivanhoe | | Macmillan | | |
| 3059 | Jamaica Inn | Mourier, D. | Longman | | |
| 3060 | Jane Eyre | | OUP | | 2100 |
| 3061 | Jane Eyre | | Macmillan | | |
| 3062 | Jane Eyre | Bronte, C. | Longman | | |
| 3063 | Japan: Islands in the Mist | Milward, P. | William Collins | | 2000 |
| 3064 | Kidnapped | | Macmillan | | |
| 3065 | Kidnapped | Stevenson, R.L. | Longman | | |
| 3066 | Little Lord Fauntleroy | Bernet, F.H. | Yohan | | 2000 |
| 3067 | Lord Jim | | OUP | | 2100 |
| 3068 | Lost Horizon | | Macmillan | | |
| 3069 | Men and Machines | | Regents | | 2400 |
| 3070 | Middlemarch | Eliot, G. | William Collins | | 2000 |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 3071 | Mill on the Floss | | Macmillan | | |
| 3072 | Mine Boy | Abrahams, P. | Heinemann | | |
| 3073 | Moby Dick | | Macmillan | | |
| 3074 | Moby Dick | Melvile, H. | Longman | | |
| 3075 | Modern American Short Stories | Roberts, G. | Longman | | 2000 |
| 3076 | Money for Sale | Hardcastle, M. | Heinemann | 1975 | 2200 |
| 3077 | More People of our Time | | Macmillan | | 2200 |
| 3078 | More Tales from Shakespeare | Lamb, C. & M. | Longman | | |
| 3079 | Nicholas Nickleby | | Macmillan | | |
| 3080 | Of Human Bondage | | Macmillan | | |
| 3081 | Of Mice and Men | Steinbeck, J. | Heinemann | 1975 | 2200 |
| 3082 | Oliver Twist | | OUP | | 2100 |
| 3083 | Oliver Twist | | Macmillan | | |
| 3084 | Our Mutual Friend | Dickens, C. | Heinemann | 1978 | 2200 |
| 3085 | Outstanding Short Stories | Thornley, G.C. | Longman | | 2000 |
| 3086 | Picnic | Longe, W. | Yohan | | 2000 |
| 3087 | Precious Bane | Webb, M. | Heinemann | | |
| 3088 | Pride and Prejudice | Austen, J. | Longman | | |
| 3089 | Rasputin | Rixon, Shelagh | Nelson | | |
| 3090 | Rebecca | du Maurier, D. | Eichosha | | 2000 |
| 3091 | Rebecca | | Heinemann | 1977 | 2200 |
| 3092 | Rebecca | du Maurier, D. | Longman | | |
| 3093 | Robinson Crusoe | | Macmillan | | |
| 3094 | Round the World in 80 Days | | Macmillan | | |
| 3095 | Round the World in Eighty Days | Verne, J. | Longman | | |
| 3096 | Selected Short Stories | Maugham, S. & Others | Eichosha | | 2000 |
| 3097 | Sense and Sensibility | Austen, J. | William Collins | | 2000 |
| 3098 | Sherlock Holmes Short Stories | | Longman | | |
| 3099 | Silas Marner | Eliot, G. | Eichosha | | 2000 |
| 3100 | Silas Marner | | Macmillan | | |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 3101 | Six Great Scientists | | Macmillan | | 2200 |
| 3102 | Six Short Stories | | Macmillan | | |
| 3103 | Six Tales from Shakespeare | | Macmillan | | |
| 3104 | Sons and Lovers | Lawrence, D.H. | William Collins | | 2500 |
| 3105 | Sons and Lovers | Lawrence, D.H. | Longman | | |
| 3106 | Stories from Homer | | Macmillan | | |
| 3107 | Stories of Detection and Mystery | | Longman | | |
| 3108 | Stories of Shakespeare's Plays I | | OUP | | 2100 |
| 3109 | Strange Case of Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde | Stevenson, R.L. | Longman | | |
| 3110 | Strange Tales from the Arabian Nights | | Macmillan | | |
| 3111 | Tales from Shakespeare | Lamb, C. & M. | Longman | | |
| 3112 | Tales from Tolstoy | | OUP | | 2100 |
| 3113 | Tales of Mystery and Imagination | Poe, E.A. | Asahi Press | | 2000 |
| 3114 | Tales of Mystery and Imagination | Poe, E.A. | Longman | | 2000 |
| 3115 | The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn | Twain, M. | Longman | | |
| 3116 | The Adventures of Sherlock Holmes | | OUP | | 2100 |
| 3117 | The Adventures of Tom Sawyer | | Macmillan | | |
| 3118 | The Adventures of Tom Sawyer | Twain, M. | Longman | | |
| 3119 | The Air We Breathe, the Water We Drink | Aylesworth, T.G. | Yohan | 1972 | |
| 3120 | The Autobiography of Benjamin Franklin | Franklin, B. | Yohan | 1972 | |
| 3121 | The Best of Hawthorne | Hawthorne, N. | Yohan | | 2000 |
| 3122 | The Call of the Wild | London, J. | Yohan | 1986 | |
| 3123 | The Castle of Danger | Stwart, M. | Longman | | |
| 3124 | The Citadel | Cronin, A. J. | Longman | | |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 3125 | The Creative Impulse and Other Stories | Maugham, W.S. | Heinemann | 1987 | 2200 |
| 3126 | The Dark Frontier | Ambler, E. | William Collins | | 2500 |
| 3127 | The Eagle Has Landed | Higgins, J. | William Collins | | 2000 |
| 3128 | The English Revolution | Newhouse, J. | CBS | | 2100 |
| 3129 | The Fox | Lawrence, D.H. | Asahi Press | | 2400 |
| 3130 | The Glory Boys | Seymour, G. | William Collins | | 2500 |
| 3131 | The Good Earth | Buck, P. | Longman | | |
| 3132 | The Grapes of Wrath | Steinbeck, J. | Heinemann | 1978 | 2200 |
| 3133 | The Great Ponds | Amadi, E. | Heinemann | 1976 | 2200 |
| 3134 | The Guns of Navarone | Maclean, A. | William Collins | | 2000 |
| 3135 | The Invisible Man | Wells, H.G. | Longman | | |
| 3136 | The Loneliness of Long Distance Runner | Sillitoe, A. | Asahi Press | | 2400 |
| 3137 | The Man of Property | Galsworthy, J. | Heinemann | 1975 | 2200 |
| 3138 | The Mayor of Casterbridge | | Macmillan | | |
| 3139 | The Mayor of Casterbridge | Hardy, T. | William Collins | | 2000 |
| 3140 | The Olympic Games | Rulloh, B. | Heinemann | 1976 | 2200 |
| 3141 | The Place of the Lotus | Spiro, Jane | Nelson | | |
| 3142 | The Portrait of a Lady | James, H. | Regents | | 2000 |
| 3143 | The Prisoner of Zenda | Hope, A. | Longman | | |
| 3144 | The Red Badge of Courage | Crane, S. | Yohan | | 2000 |
| 3145 | The Red Badge of Courage | Crane, S. | Regents | | 2600 |
| 3146 | The Red Badge of Courage | | Macmillan | | |
| 3147 | The Return of the Native | Hardy, T. | Heinemann | 1979 | 2200 |
| 3148 | The Rise of Silas Lapham | Howells, W.D. | Regents | | 2200 |
| 3149 | The Sea Wolf | London, J. | Yohan | | 2000 |
| 3150 | The Sketch Book and Other Stories | Irving, W. | Yohan | 1966 | |
| 3151 | The Story of Pop | Byrne, J. | Heinemann | 1975 | 2200 |
| 3152 | The Suicide Club | Stevenson, R.L. | Asahi Press | | 2000 |
| 3153 | The Thirty-Nine Steps | Buchan, J. | Longman | | |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 3154 | The Townsman | Buck, P. | Yohan | | 2000 |
| 3155 | The Turn of the Screw | James, H. | Yohan | | 2000 |
| 3156 | The Vicar of Wakefield | | Macmillan | | |
| 3157 | The Walk to Land's End | Thoreau, H.D. | Yohan | | 2000 |
| 3158 | Three Best Detective Stories | Allingham, M. & Other | Eichosha | | 2000 |
| 3159 | Three Men in a Boat | Jerome, J.K. | Longman | | |
| 3160 | Three Outstanding Short Stories | Maugham, S. & Others | Eichosha | | 2000 |
| 3161 | Three Shakespeare Tragedies | | Macmillan | | |
| 3162 | To Build a Fire | London, J. | Yohan | | 2000 |
| 3163 | Tom Jones | | Macmillan | | |
| 3164 | Treasure Island | | Macmillan | | |
| 3165 | Twelve Angry Men | Rose, R. | Yohan | | 2000 |
| 3166 | Two Stories | Hemingway, E. | Asahi Press | | 2400 |
| 3167 | Understanding Light | Tannenbaum, B. & Stillman, M. | Yohan | | 2000 |
| 3168 | Victory | Conrad, J. | William Collins | | 2000 |
| 3169 | Visiting the U.S.A. | Lanier, A.R. | Yohan | | 1977 |
| 3170 | Weep Not, Child | Thiong'o, N. | Heinemann | | |
| 3171 | Where Eagles Dare | Maclean, A. | William Collins | | 2000 |
| 3172 | Wonder Tales from Greece | | Macmillan | | |
| 3173 | Wreck of the Mary Deare | Jones, H. | William Collins | | 2000 |
| 3174 | Wuthering Heights | | Macmillan | | |
| 3175 | Wuthering Heights | Bronte, E. | William Collins | | 2000 |
| 3176 | Wuthering Heights | Bronte, E. | Longman | | |

**Advanced Level (3000- )**

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 4001 | A Farewell to Arms | Hemingway, E. | Kirihara | | |
| 4002 | A Tale of Two Cities | | OUP | | 3100 |
| 4003 | Adventures in Chemistry | Woodburn, J.H. | OUP | | 4000 |
| 4004 | After the Fair and Other Stories | | Macmillan | | |
| 4005 | American Short Stories | | Longman | | |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 4006 | Animal Farm | Orwell, G. | Longman | | |
| 4007 | Around the World in Eighty Days | | OUP | | 3100 |
| 4008 | Best Detective Stories of Agatha Christie | | Longman | | |
| 4009 | Brave New World | Huxley, A. | Longman | | |
| 4010 | Climbing Everest | Bonington, Chris | Nelson | | |
| 4011 | Cry the Beloved Country | Paton, A. | Longman | | |
| 4012 | Customs and Institutions | Tielsky, E. & Tielsky M. | Regents | | 3000 |
| 4013 | David Copperfield | | OUP | | 3100 |
| 4014 | Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde and Other Stories | | OUP | | 3700 |
| 4015 | Flowers for Mrs. Harris | Gallico, P. | Longman | | |
| 4016 | Frankenstein | | OUP | | 5000 |
| 4017 | From Russia with Love | | OUP | | 3700 |
| 4018 | Further Adventures of Sherlock Holmes | | OUP | | 3100 |
| 4019 | Great Expectations | Dickens, C. | Kirihara | | |
| 4020 | Great Expectations | Dickens, C. | Longman | | |
| 4021 | Ickets, Please and Other Stories | | Macmillan | | |
| 4022 | In the Teeth of the Evidence and Other Stories | | Macmillan | | |
| 4023 | Jane Eyre | Bronte, C. | Kirihara | | |
| 4024 | King Solomon's Mines | | OUP | | 3700 |
| 4025 | Letters for a Spy | Hare, John | Nelson | | |
| 4026 | Lucky Jim | Amis, K. | Longman | | |
| 4027 | Moonraker | | OUP | | 3700 |
| 4028 | Nineteen Eighty-Four | Orwell, G. | Kirihara | | |
| 4029 | Nineteen Eighty Four | Orwell, G. | Longman | | |
| 4030 | Of Human Bondage | Maugham, W.S. | Kirihara | | |
| 4031 | Oliver Twist | Dickens, C. | Longman | | |
| 4032 | Other Gods | Buck, P. | Yohan | | 3000 |
| 4033 | Pride and Prejudice | | OUP | | 5000 |
| 4034 | Pride and Prejudice | | OUP | | 3700 |
| 4035 | Robert Frost: The Aim was Song | Gould, J. | Yohan | | 3000 |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 4036 | Robinson Crusoe | | OUP | | 3100 |
| 4037 | Seven Stories | | OUP | | 3700 |
| 4038 | Short Stories by Ambrose Bierce | Bierce, A. | Yohan | | 4000 |
| 4039 | Sons and Lovers | Lawrence, D.H. | Kirihara | | |
| 4040 | Stories of Shakespeare's Plays 2 | | OUP | | 3100 |
| 4041 | Stories of Shakespeare's Plays 3 | | OUP | | 3700 |
| 4042 | Tales of Crime and Detection | | OUP | | 3100 |
| 4043 | Tales of Mystery and Imagination | | OUP | | 3700 |
| 4044 | The Adventures of Tom Sawyer | | OUP | | 3100 |
| 4045 | The Age of the Economist | Fusfeld, D.R. | Yohan | | 3000 |
| 4046 | The Art of Making Sense | Ruby, L. | Yohan | | 3000 |
| 4047 | The Art of Teaching | Highet, G. | Yohan | | 3000 |
| 4048 | The Day of the Jackal | Forsyth, F. | Yohan | | 3000 |
| 4049 | The Devil's Alternative | Forsyth, F. | Yohan | | 3000 |
| 4050 | The Dragons of Tiananmen Square | Hare, John | Nelson | | |
| 4051 | The Gift and Other Stories | | OUP | | 3700 |
| 4052 | The Good Earth | | OUP | | 3700 |
| 4053 | The Grapes of Wrath | Steinbeck, J. | Kirihara | | |
| 4054 | The Hound of the Baskervilles | | OUP | | 3100 |
| 4055 | The Kon-Tiki Expedition | | Longman | | |
| 4056 | The Life of Abraham Lincoln | Lorant, L. | Yohan | | 3000 |
| 4057 | The Loneliness of the Long-Distance Runner | Sillitoe, A. | Yohan | | 3000 |
| 4058 | The Man with the Scar and Other Stories | | Macmillan | | |
| 4059 | The Mayor of Casterbridge | | OUP | | 5000 |

| | Title | Author | Publisher | Year | Vocab. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 4060 | The Mayor of Casterbridge | | OUP | | 3700 |
| 4061 | The Million Year Picnic and Other Stories | | Macmillan | | |
| 4062 | The Moth and Other Stories | | Longman | | |
| 4063 | The Mouse and Other Stories | | Macmillan | | |
| 4064 | The Naked and the Dead | Mailer, N. | Kirihara | | |
| 4065 | The Prairie | Cooper, J. | Yohan | | 3000 |
| 4066 | The Road from Colonus and Other Stories | | Macmillan | | |
| 4067 | The Scarlet Letter | Hawthorne, N. | Yohan | | 3000 |
| 4068 | The Spy | Cooper, J. | Yohan | | 3000 |
| 4069 | The Tell-Tale Heart and Other Stories | | Macmillan | | |
| 4070 | The War of the Worlds | | OUP | | 3700 |
| 4071 | The Woman in White | | OUP | | 3700 |
| 4072 | The Woman in White | | OUP | | 3700 |
| 4073 | The World Above | Murchie, G. | Yohan | | 3000 |
| 4074 | Two Boxes of Gold and Other Stories | | OUP | | 3100 |
| 4075 | Wuthering Heights | | OUP | | 3700 |
| 4076 | Wuthering Heights | Bronte, E. | Kirihara | | |
| 4077 | You Only Live Twice | | OUP | | 3700 |

# 11. Getting Students to Read Actively

Kenji Kitao

## Abstract

Though English reading is taught extensively in Japan, it is not necessarily taught effectively. Translation and reading aloud, rather than understanding, have been emphasized. In addition, students read slowly, give the same amount of attention to each word, and often do not understand the passage as a whole.

In this paper, I have looked at Japanese students' reading skills and textbooks used to teach reading in Japan. I have also suggested features that make good textbooks and discussed techniques and activities for reading classes which avoid translation and which I believe make students more active in reading classes and improve their reading skills. I have listed ways of managing the class that contribute to students' active participation, including what to do on the first day of class, and made suggestions for pair and group work. Finally, I have briefly discussed independent reading, computer-assisted instruction, and using newspapers.

## Introduction

Reading has been the most emphasized skill in English instruction in Japanese junior and senior high schools and colleges (Hashimoto, 1977; Ito, 1990). Even today it is the most important part of English instruction though oral communicative aspects are emphasized more than in the past. However, I question how effectively it is taught (Kitao, 1983). In this paper, I will discuss Japanese students' reading problems and some of the problems of college English textbooks, present the results of our research and discuss characteristics of measures of readability. I will also present teaching methods and techniques which I believe to be effective with Japanese students, as well as good exercises, useful activities and tips for class administration to make students active learners in reading.

## Japanese Students' Problems in Reading

Many Japanese people believe that they can read English but not speak it. However, in my seventeen years of teaching experience, I have strong doubts about this (Kitao, 1983). Scholars who have studied reading activities have had the same doubts (Matsumura, 1984; Tanaka, 1992).

Many students think that reading English means reading it aloud. They can read aloud fluently, but they do not understand what they are reading. If I ask students questions about what they read aloud, they have to read the passage again silently.

Translation has been emphasized in college English reading classes (Koike, 1983; Ogino, 1983), and thus many students read by replacing the English words with Japanese words on a word-by-word basis without having any understanding of the meaning. After students "translate" a passage into Japanese, if I ask questions about it, they often cannot answer them.

Japanese students, on average, read English very slowly. They can read 50-100 words per minute, and even after a half year of training designed to increase their reading speed, they could read only 105 words with 54% comprehension (Yoshida and Kitao, 1986). They read much more slowly than native speakers of English, whose reading speed is, on average, 280 words per minute (Goda, 1976). That slow speed makes it difficult for readers to understand relationships among pieces of information in the passage, as Smith (1982) argues that comprehension is difficult if people read less than 200 words per minute.

In my experience, there are several other problems that hamper students' comprehension ability, all stemming from a basic tendency to give the same amount of attention to each word; that is, they see each word and each sentence as having the same importance in the passage. When reading, students try to understand individual sentences, but they do not understand the connections among the sentences. They do not think about the main idea of a paragraph and how the sentences contribute to the development of that main idea. They do not try to understand the passage as a whole. They have difficulties summarizing or reconstructing passages they have read. Students see sentences as existing independently without any relationship among them. Students often do not understand pronouns or references which connect sentences. They often do not understand the writer's point of view.

## Research Findings

In order to investigate college students' English reading proficiency, the JALT English Reading Project made two parallel tests, the JALT English Reading Test: Forms A and C, each of which has five sections: a dialogue, directions, a newspaper article, an essay and a poem.[1]

Five or ten multiple choice or short-answer questions are provided in each section and each section is worth twenty points. These tests were given to more than five hundred college students and more than one hundred high school students in April 1980 and in September 1980. We revised Forms A and C slightly to make Forms E and F and administered them to five hundred college students and more than one hundred students in April 1981 and before and after summer vacation, 1981. We administered Form E again before and after winter vacation in order to find out how the students' English ability had improved.

The students read the familiar literary forms, an essay and a narrative, most quickly and read directions and newspaper articles more slowly. They read the easier passages faster. There was a high correlation between reading ability and reading speed. There was a higher correlation between reading ability and reading speed among students with higher scores than among students with lower scores.

Students' reading time decreased by 20% over a year's time. The top third of the students, based on their total scores, were reading faster than the students in the lower third, and their reading speed improved much more than students with lower scores (Kitao, Kitao, Yoshida, and Yoshida, 1985; Kitao and Miyamoto, 1982; Kitao and Miyamoto, 1983; Kitao and Yoshida, 1985; Kitao, Yoshida, and Yoshida, 1986; Yoshida and Kitao, 1986).

## Problems of College English Textbooks in Japan

About 300 new college English textbooks are published in Japan each year (Koike, 1982). Though oral communication and other skills are emphasized today, about 75% of the college textbooks published in Japan are reading textbooks, and that number increases to more than 80% if all-around textbooks that emphasize reading are included (Daigaku eigo kyokasho mokuroku, No. 18, 1993).[2] Many of the reading textbooks are excerpts of English books with Japanese notes. This style has not changed much over the last half century. Many of them are essays or literature. Many of them are too long and too difficult. They are not interesting. They do not have many visual aids. Some of them have old passages. They do not have much to help students comprehend the reading (Kitao, et al., 1987; Kitao, et al., 1988).

We have analyzed many textbooks in developing our reading textbook project, and we believe that good English textbooks should have correct and natural English, though some textbooks, particularly on grammar or composition, have some incorrect and/or unnatural English. Information in the textbooks should be accurate. Some textbooks are old and information in them is too old and inaccurate. The content should be meaningful and interesting to learners. It should also be interesting to them. Some content is too childish or related to areas which college students are not interested in or are irrelevant to them.

## Good English Texts

I have discussed the problems of college English textbooks. So what characteristics make a good reading textbook? The following are conclusions reached by the reading project group (Kitao and Kitao, 1982).

1) Though most college English textbooks have essays and narratives, students should be exposed to a variety of literary forms, including dialogues, newspaper articles, poetry, brochures, etc. Students should also read examples of authentic English such as advertisements, menus, programs and announcements.

2) It is best to have reading passages of 1,000 words or less in length, depending on the level of the students, so that students can finish one lesson in each class.

3) Reading passages should be written in standard, modern English. Dialect, slang and old style English may be appropriate for more advanced students, but, in general, it is better to avoid them in earlier stages.

4) The difficulty level of textbooks should be slightly beyond students' ability (Watanabe, 1990). If they are too difficult, students may get discouraged and give up; if they are too easy, students' reading ability will not improve.

5) Textbooks should not have any biased information, since many students believe whatever they read in textbooks.

6) Reading passages should be interesting and motivating to students. They should have some information that is new to students,

because that will help maintain the students' interest. Information about other cultures is also useful, because many students are interested in other cultures.

7) Textbooks should have some exercises to help students understand the reading passages. These should involve more than translation of the English reading passages into Japanese. They should help students find the main idea and supporting details, and help them understand the relationships among these.

In recent years, there have been several trends in English reading textbooks. They have become more communicative, more skill oriented, and have begun to deal with more diverse content areas, particularly science. There is more emphasis on helping students by giving them more instruction, more vocabulary, more visual aids and more exercises.

## Readability

The issue of readability is very important for reading textbooks. Readability refers to how difficult a reading passage is for readers. There are many readability scales, including the Fry Readability Scale by Dr. Edward B. Fry (Fry, 1978). This scale is based on the number of syllables per word and sentences in the passage. Content and vocabulary are not considered.

Some computer software programs measure readability. *RightWriter* is one of them, and it determines readability of passages based on such factors as the number of words per sentence and the number of difficult words in the passage.

Another method of measuring readability is the cloze test, developed by Anderson (1971). This process involves choosing a 250-word excerpt from the passage in question and deleting every fifth word except in the first and last sentence, not including numbers. Students fill in those blanks, and their responses are scored using the exact word method of scoring, that is, judging students' answers as correct only if they are exactly the same as the original text and incorrect if they are different from the original text, even if the answer makes sense in context. If students score more than 53% correct, the difficulty level of the reading is at the independent level, which means that students can read it by themselves. If they get between 44% and 53%, it is at the instructional level, and students can read it with some instruction. If they get less than 44%, it is at the frustration level, and they cannot understand it.

In the experience of the reading group members, if the average number of words per sentence is 20 words or more, if there are more than 5% unfamiliar words, and/or if the information in the reading is completely new, then that reading is difficult. Thus, the difficulty of a passage is not necessarily something for which a standard measurement is useful for all readers, since familiarity of words, newness of information, etc., vary from student to student. Therefore, students' perception of the difficulty of the passage is important.

## Teaching Methods and Techniques

I believe that it is important to avoid translation in the teaching of reading, and I use various strategies which I think help students learn to read English but still avoid translation. Of course, the reading passage itself is most important, and I try to have students read the passage at least once during the class period, and more often if there is time.

1) Before students actually start reading, I often have them do pre-reading exercises. Pre-reading exercises have various forms, but their purpose is to prepare students to read, to activate the knowledge that they already have about a subject, or to give them an idea what the reading is about, so that they can anticipate what they are going to read. For example, I might ask students questions about the subject which they are likely to know the answers to. I might

ask them what they know about the subject. Sometimes I have them read the title, headings, and perhaps the first lines of the paragraphs and identify the topics that the reading covers. (For advanced students, I have them provide the topics themselves; for elementary or intermediate students, I give them a list of topics to choose from.) These and other pre-reading exercises help prepare students to read.[3]

2) I encourage students to increase their reading speed, so that they can obtain more information and grasp the meaning of the reading passage quickly. I also give students skimming questions, in which they quickly look for the overall meaning of a paragraph or reading, or scanning exercises, in which students search quickly for specific pieces of information, such as names or dates. Another way of helping students increase their reading speed is to have them keep track of the words per minute that they read. This is done by informing students of the number of words in the passage, having them keep track of the time it takes them to read the passage, and using a reading speed chart[4] to calculate the number of words they read per minute. If students keep a chart of the results, they can see their improvement over time, and it encourages them to read faster.

An easy way to time students' reading is to draw the figure below on the blackboard, and then tell students to start reading. While the students read, keep track of the time, pointing at the seconds and writing in the numbers of the minutes.

| Minutes | Seconds | |
|---|---|---|
| | 0 | 30 |
| | 10 | 40 |
| | 20 | 50 |

When the students finish reading, they should note the time elapsed, record it in their time record chart, and look up or calculate the number of words per minute.[5] This makes it easier to compare the reading speed even with different readings (Kitao, 1993b).

I have students keep their reading time six times for each reading, and they fill in the time record chart. They make a copy of the time record chart for me at the end of the course.

3) The vocabulary of a reading passage should not be too difficult. For words that students might not know, or words that have a cultural background that students might not be familiar with, I provide easy explanations in English, rather than translations in Japanese. Teaching students how to use English-English dictionaries is also very important. I give students a lesson in using an English-English dictionary, with examples using a page from a dictionary.[6] In addition, it is useful to teach students to figure out meanings of unknown words from context. The meaning of an unknown word might be understandable because the unknown word is contrasted with something else, because examples are given, because a parallel is drawn with something else, etc.[7]

4) Lines in the passage should be numbered. This makes it easier to discuss the passage with students and to direct the students' attention to particular places in the passage.

5) When checking students' comprehension and evaluating them, I do so without translation. Comprehension questions, including short-answer, multiple choice, and true/false questions, are useful for this purpose, but the questions and answers are all in English.

6) Instead of trying to understand word by word or sentence by sentence, it is important for students to understand a reading passage paragraph by paragraph. To emphasize the distinction among paragraphs, I put a wider space between paragraphs than between lines within a paragraph. I ask students about the main ideas of each paragraph, ask them to suggest titles for paragraphs, and/or ask them to find topic sentences.

If there is enough time, I explain to students the introduction, discussion, and conclusion of paragraphs, and point out examples of these in the reading passages. I also teach students about typical ways of organizing paragraphs in English, such as comparison and contrast, cause and effect, and personal opinion. In addition, I teach them about transitions, such as words that introduce consequences (so, therefore), additional information (and, in addition), or causes (because, due to).[8]

7) Understanding the relationships among pieces of information is also important. In order to help students see these relationships, I provide such activities as reference exercises (asking students to locate the antecedents of pronouns), outline exercises (outlines with blanks for students to fill in), and cloze exercises.

8) Another important skill is understanding the sequence of events or ideas in the reading passage. In organization exercises, students are given a list of statements based on the reading passage, and asked to put the statements either in the order that the information appeared in the passage or in chronological order.

9) For certain readings, it is important to visualize descriptions, and I provide visualization exercises. Students may need to draw a simple sketch or map to show their comprehension.

10) Relating what has been read to students' own experiences, opinions, and ideas is important, and I give students discussion questions which help them do this.

## Class Management for Active Reading

I give students a pretest at the beginning of the class and a posttest at the end of the class, using JALT English Reading Test: Forms G and H, which are machine gradable forms. Based on the results of the test, I assign seats. If there are, for example, six rows, starting with the students with the highest scores, I assign students to the first, third, and fifth rows, and then the second, fourth, and sixth rows. That way, students from the higher half of the class are interspersed with students from the lower half of the class. It is important that students do not know how seats are assigned. Before I used this type of seating plan, the student who got the lowest score wrote in the exit questionnaire that she was intimidated in my class because she had to sit in the seat where everyone knew the worst student sat.

After all seats are assigned, I make a seating chart. (See Appendix.) It has the student numbers and names, allowing me to take roll in only a few seconds. I can use a seating chart for each class to keep attendance and whatever other records I want to keep for each class, such as whether a particular student has answered questions correctly and whether he/she did homework. Since the seating chart has more space to write in than a roll book, it is easier to keep information.

This arrangement also allows me to direct more difficult questions to students with higher proficiency, and less difficult questions to students with lower proficiency.

At various times during the year, I have students change their seats, but I keep them within the same rows, so that the upper-level and lower-level students are still interspersed.

## Suggestions for Pair and Group Work

Pair and group activities encourage students to study hard, to be involved, and to actively participate in their own learning. They remember more from such activities than in a lecture class, where they just listen to the teacher. Students also enjoy working with other students.

One way students can work in pairs is to have one student read aloud while the other listens. The reader then reads comprehension questions, and the listener answers them without looking at the text. They can then discuss their opinions about the reading or their related experiences.

Either in pairs or in groups, students can also compare their answers to questions. If they find that they have different answers, they can look back at the main text and determine which answer is correct.

I form groups by putting two pairs together. Four seems to be the best number for group activities. If there are more than four students, the group is too large, and it is easy for one student to avoid participating. When I start group projects, I assign students to groups and also choose the leader of each group, for example, the student with the smallest student number in the group.

Students can also do group presentations about reading passages. Depending on the teachers' assignment, groups can either do presentations that only include the content of the passage, or they can supplement the information in the reading with their own reactions, additional information from library research, etc. For the presentation, students can also make visuals to make the information easier to understand. According to students' feedback, they work harder for presentations than for other types of assignments.

As a summer assignment, I have students read and answer questions from an English reading textbook. For this assignment, I make groups of three students with high, medium and low proficiency. During the fall term, I give students a series of tests on that textbook. Students take the tests individually, but the score each student receives is the average of the three students who are working together. This forces the three students to work together and help each other to obtain high scores. Students with high proficiency like it, but for ones with low proficiency, it is a great deal of pressure.

## Other Activities for Motivating Students

One way of motivating students is to give them frequent quizzes. This encourages them to keep up with the class and gives them concrete goals. I give a quiz every week, and after students have finished taking the quiz, I ask them to exchange papers and grade each others' quizzes. This way, students understand the correct answers and see how well they have done. Using computer grading is also convenient for giving students feedback on the results of their tests, and it prevents cheating that might occur when students grade each others' tests. Frequent feedback is very important in language instruction, and many students get frustrated in classes where they do not get any feedback during a year.

Library research to prepare for an oral presentation is challenging for many students. When the class does a reading, I assign two students to go to the library separately to get more information about some topic related to the reading and do a presentation in class on what they have found. The reason I have two students work on the same topic separately is to encourage competition between them. (This can also be done as an assignment for two groups rather than two individuals.)

Readings are most successful if there are meaningful activities related to them. The most successful reading passage I have ever used is a recipe for pancakes. I gave students the assignment to read the recipe, make pancakes at home, and write a report about their experience. They really enjoyed doing this, because they could find out in a concrete way whether they understood the meaning of the reading. Some students wrote in their reports that it was the first time they had ever used English to actually do something.

Similar activities can be done with any kind of directions or instructions. Students like to do such activities as following directions on a map or following instructions for *origami*. They seem to enjoy doing the activity itself and also having an objective way of seeing whether they have understood the instructions.

Realia is particularly interesting and motivating for students, and it can be used as the basis for a wide variety of activities. For example, students can use a menu as the basis for a role play about ordering in a restaurant. They can be given a certain amount of money, and they can decide what they would like to order. They can use classified advertisements for apartments for rent to discuss the advantages and disadvantages of the various apartments and, given what they can pay for rent, decide which apartment would be best. Students enjoy the opportunity to do activities with authentic English. In addition, realia provides cultural information about English-speaking countries. For example, from menus students can learn about what kind of food Americans eat, what the price ranges are for different kinds of restaurants, etc.

During the last five minutes of class, I ask students to give me brief written feedback about the class. I ask them to address various questions, such as what they have learned in that class, what three important things they learned in that class were, or whatever I would like to know about what or how well they are learning. Sometimes I ask students to write their comments on the class, and I use their feedback to make the class better.

## First Day of Class

In organizing an active class, the first day is important. If it goes well, it establishes the tone for the entire course and the course will be well organized. If the first day goes badly, the course will be disorganized, and it will take much more time and effort to administer it well.

In my reading classes, I always begin by explaining reasons for studying English. I give general reasons to study English and specific reasons to do it in college. English is an international language, and it is useful for communicating with both native English speakers and with nonnative speakers who speak English.

Then I explain the goals of the course. The first goal is to increase reading ability by learning to read various literary forms, improving reading skills, increasing reading speed, learning to understand the main ideas of paragraphs and entire passages better, and understanding details and how they relate to each other. The second goal is to learn about American culture, which includes the background of Americans, the daily life of Americans, and practical English used in the United States. College English courses should include both developing language skill and learning about a content area.

I always make it clear to students how I will evaluate them, since they are most interested in grades. I evaluate using classroom activities, quizzes, projects, reports, and tests. I make it clear that I will never ask a question that requires them to translate an English passage into Japanese, but that I will ask all questions in English and they need to respond in English. They are used to studying reading passages and translating them into Japanese, but I make it clear that such study will not help them earn high grades.

I also explain to students how they should study for my reading classes. Since I give many assignments and projects, as well as many activities in class, I emphasize that it is important to follow my directions in any work that they do. I emphasize that they need to review what they have learned as well as studying for the coming classes. Of course, it is important for them to study for quizzes, which I have in every class.

In order to administer the classes smoothly, I require students to bring pencils and an eraser for computer-graded quizzes, a black ballpoint pen to take quizzes and a red ballpoint pen to grade other students' quizzes. I ask them to use B5 size notebooks with two holes to write responses to my questions about the class or feedback during the last five minutes of class. I collect these notebooks, and since they are all the same size, it is very easy for me to handle them.

Finally, I give the students nine hints about how to get the most out of the class. They are 1) to be open to different cultures and ways to life, 2) pay attention to different literary forms and personal writing styles, 3) make use of any visual aids that go along with the reading passage, 4) avoid translation, 5) use an English-English dictionary, if they need a dictionary, 6) use the exercises to help them understand the reading passages, 7) time their reading, and keep a record of their times, 8) read in English outside of class, and

9) study more about American culture outside of class.

## Independent Reading

Though teachers work very hard to teach effectively, the time of instruction in class is limited. It is important for students to read as much as possible to improve their reading proficiency, more than they can possibly read in class. I have given students three types of independent reading projects.

### Independent Reading from the ESL Corner

One independent reading project that I assign makes use of graded readers and easy reading books in the ESL Corner in the library, which has more than 1,000 books now. I give students a list of all the books available, a handout entitled "Pleasure Reading" which explains how to use them and the reasons for doing independent reading, and book report forms, which students fill in to give feedback to me and the rest of the class. (See the appendices of "Independent Reading in English — Use of Graded Readers in the Library English as a Second Language Corner — " for copies of "Pleasure Reading" and the book report forms.) In this project, I emphasized reading for pleasure, understanding the plot and main ideas but not details, and avoiding using dictionaries. Students filled in book reports, and based on those, students had discussions, exchanging information in groups and with other members of the class. I also gave summaries of popular books to encourage them to read more. I gave extra points to students if they read extra books (Kitao, 1989; Kitao, Yamamoto, Kitao, and Shimatani, 1990).

### Computer-Assisted Instruction (CAI)

Computers are useful for self study. Doshisha University has been using computers for English instruction since 1988 (Ishihara, Kitao, and Yamauchi, 1992; Kitao, 1991; Kitao, 1992a; Kitao, 1992b;

Kitao, 1993a; Kitao, Ishihara, and Yamauchi, 1992). Once we have put the material into the computer and informed the students what is available, they can study it any time they want at their own pace. We have collected a great deal of CAI material for teaching reading, and we can probably give two major reading courses using our materials.[9]

We have found several advantages of using CAI to teach reading. Students can cover much more material in the same amount of time, compared to conventional reading instruction. They can get immediate feedback as to how well they have understood the material and how fast they are working. If they have read the same material as their classmates, they can find out how well they have done compared to their classmates. They enjoy reading using this method of instruction, and they work actively.

Teachers can also see how well students have done and decide what material and how much material to give to individual students. We can also see what problems individual students are having and consult with them.

It is also convenient to use computers as bulletin boards. I can give assignments or information to students through computers. I have put the list of English graded readers, which is 22 pages long, in the computer, and students can check it anytime when the computer rooms are open.

### Using Newspapers for Extensive Reading

Newspapers are also useful as material for independent reading. I introduce newspapers by explaining their usefulness to students and giving them information on how newspapers are organized, how to read headlines, what types of articles there are, what types of information is included in the lead of a news article, etc.[10]

After introducing information about newspapers, I assign students to read at least one short newspaper article each day. Students keep a journal about what they are reading, including Xerox copies of the articles that they have read and summaries of the articles. (Instead of keeping a diary, students can do presentations, in groups or as individuals, about the articles that they have read.) Students can be assigned to follow a particular topic over a period of time.

Kitao and Kitao (1989a; 1992a) include exercises that can be used for different types of newspaper articles, including news articles, features, sports news, business news, and columns. Using these exercises, students study the characteristics of different types of articles. In addition, Kitao and Kitao (1989b; 1992b) have a review exercise that can be used with a newspaper. Students follow the instructions and identify characteristics of newspapers and headlines, various types of articles and their characteristics, and so on. It can be used as a review or as a test.

## Summary and Conclusion

In summary, we need to choose or design easy readings to teach reading effectively. These readings need to be well organized, to have concrete ideas or information, and to be written or chosen to suit the goals of the class. The number of words in the reading passage should also be specified, so they can be used to calculate students' reading speeds. Readings should have exercises which help students understand the reading passage, and production exercises which help students improve their proficiency in speaking English. If a reading passage has difficult vocabulary, there should be explanations in easy English. Teachers should provide a reading speed chart and time record chart and encourage students to keep track of the increase in their reading speed in words per minute. Though reading fast is important, understanding should be emphasized more. It is not easy to find very good materials for reading, and it is very time-consuming to make them. Working with other teachers and sharing work will certainly improve reading classes as well.

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## Appendix

### Seating Chart

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 8 Tagawa | 16 Kiji | 24 Izumi | 32 Okabe | 40 Kondo | 48 Hatori |
| 7 Koizumi | 15 Tateno | 23 Oda | 31 Hara | 39 Kieda | 47 Mori |
| 6 Yamada | 14 Ashida | 22 Ito | 30 Higami | 38 Tokuda | 46 Nishi |
| 5 Shimada | 13 Mita | 21 Imai | 29 Irie | 37 Kishi | 45 Minami |
| 4 Shima | 12 Itai | 20 Suzuki | 28 Tanabe | 36 Kitami | 44 Baba |
| 3 Aoki | 11 Kita | 19 Inami | 27 Ishida | 35 Kizu | 43 Hata |
| 2 Arima | 10 Tagawa | 18 Yoneda | 26 Ishino | 34 Kida | 42 Asada |
| 1 Akita | 9 Kitao | 17 Imai | 25 Cho | 33 Kishi | 41 Hori |

## Notes

[1] The JALT Reading Research Project Group, 1980-1981 (K. Kitao, V. Broderick, B. Fujiwara, M. Inoue, S. K. Kitao, H. Miyamoto, and L. Sackett) developed several reading tests.

[2] These estimates are based on a catalogue compiled by sixteen publishers of college English textbooks.

[3] A lesson about prereading activities appears in Kitao, K., Broderick, V., Fujiwara, B., Kitao, S. K., Miyamoto, H., & Sackett, L. (1985). *American patterns*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

[4] The following textbooks have a reading speed chart:

Kitao, K., Broderick, V., Fujiwara, B., Inoue, M., Kitao, S. K., Miyamoto, H., & Sackett, L. (1983). *An American sampler*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Kitao, K., Broderick, V., Fujiwara, B., Kitao, S. K., Miyamoto, H., & Sackett, L. (1985). *American patterns*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Kitao, K., Broderick, V., Fujiwara, B., Kitao, S. K., Miyamoto, H., & Sackett, L. (1985). *American vistas*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Kitao, K., Broderick, V., Kitao, S. K., Miyamoto, H., & Miyazaki, J. (1985). *American holidays*. Tokyo: Eichosha.

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Kitao, S. K., & Kitao, K. (1990). *American patchwork*. Tokyo: Asahi Press.

Kitao, S. K., & Kitao, K. (1991). *American portrait*. Tokyo: Asahi Press.

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Kitao, S. K., & Kitao, K. (1993). *Events and trends in American history*. Tokyo: Sanshusha.

Kitao, S. K., & Kitao, K. (1994). *Readings in science*. Tokyo: Asahi Press.

[5] A time record chart includes the titles of the reading passages and the number of words in each passage. Students fill in the time it takes them to read the passage and calculate the number of words they read per minute, using the reading speed chart. Examples of time record charts are found in the textbooks listed above.

[6] An example in such a lesson appears in Kitao, K., Broderick, V., Fujiwara, B., Inoue, M., Kitao, S. K., Miyamoto, H., & Sackett, L. (1983) *An American sampler*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

[7] Examples of such lessons appear in the following textbooks:

Kitao, K., Broderick, V., Fujiwara, B., Kitao, S. K., & Sackett, L. (1985). *American mosaic*. Tokyo: Eichosha.

Kitao, K., Broderick, V., Fujiwara, B., Kitao, S. K., Miyamoto, H., & Sackett, L. (1985). *American patterns*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Kitao, S. K., & Kitao, K. (1994). *Developing reading strategies*. Tokyo: Eichosha.

[8] Examples of lessons teaching about parts of paragraphs, organization of paragraphs, and transitions are included in the following textbooks:

Kitao, S. K., & Kitao, K. (1988). *Writing English paragraphs*. Tokyo: Eichosha.

Kitao, S. K., & Kitao, K. (1990). *Understanding English paragraphs*. Tokyo: Eichosha.

Kitao, S. K., & Kitao, K. (1992). *Basic English paragraphs*. Tokyo: Eichosha.

Kitao, S. K., & Kitao, K. (1993). *From paragraphs to essays*. Tokyo: Eichosha.

[9] The list of CAI materials I developed before March, 1993, is on the floppy disks attached to Edasawa, et al., 1992, and Nozawa, Shimatani, & Yamamoto, 1993.

[10] Lessons related to newspapers are included in the following textbooks:

Kitao, S. K., & Kitao, K. (1989). *Reading English newspapers*. Tokyo: Kirihara Shoten.

Kitao, S. K., & Kitao, K. (1992). *Understanding English newspapers*. Tokyo: Kirihara Shoten.

# 12. Teaching English through Newspapers

Kenji Kitao

## Abstract

The idea of reading English newspapers is appealing to many Japanese college students, though if they try it, they usually give up fairly soon, because they find it too difficult. However, if students learn something about how newspapers and newspaper articles are commonly organized, what vocabulary is commonly used, and so on, it is easier for them to read newspapers.

I begin introducing newspapers to students by discussing the advantages of reading them and giving them information about English newspapers available in Japan. I also give students advice on getting started reading, such as setting manageable goals for reading newspaper articles, choosing articles they are interested in, and reading the same type of article every day. I acquaint students with types of articles and their characteristics, headlines and their vocabulary and grammar, grammatical forms that they commonly find in news articles, and so on.

In this paper, I have explained what I teach in reading classes using newspapers, and I suggest activities using newspapers to help students apply what they have learned.

## Introduction

Though many Japanese college students are interested in reading English newspapers, they often find it difficult to do so. In talking to my students, I have found that some make an attempt to read

English newspapers, but most of them soon give up. Though it is true that it is not easy for students of English to read newspapers casually, another major problem that students have is that they have not been taught how to read English newspapers. I believe that if students learn how English newspapers are organized, how headlines are written, what vocabulary is commonly used in English newspapers, etc., they can read newspapers independently with only a little help from a dictionary. In my classes, I have had students read newspaper articles, and they have certainly enjoyed reading them.

There are a number of sources related to using English newspapers as material for language teaching. Some of these are directed to teachers who are interested in using such material. (For example, Baddock, 1983; Berman, 1980; Blachford, 1973; Boyle, 1980; Cathcart, 1975; Cheyney (1971), del Giudice, 1974; Humphris, 1974; James and Lange, 1974; Redmonds, 1978; and Todd, 1969.) In addition, there are numerous textbooks, published both in Japan and overseas, for students to learn to read newspapers. Some of these are mainly collections of newspapers articles (or even specific types of articles, such as advice columns) often with exercises, and others are textbooks teaching students about the characteristics of newspapers and/or strategies for reading them. Examples of the former include Dobbyn (1971-1994), Miura and Kanko (1981), Kanashiki (1986), Koshida and Kawaguchi (1988), and Shimizu (1983). Examples of the latter include Asano and Kizuka (1982-1994), Kitao and Kitao (1988, 1991, 1992), Nakamura (1991), and Sugiyama and Suda (1994).

Since the early 1980s, I have been teaching students how to read newspapers more easily. Students subscribe to an English newspaper for a month and read various kinds of articles with the assistance of information that I give them about newspapers. Though this practice lasts for a relatively short time, students come to understand what kind of information they can get from English newspapers, that the information is very useful and interesting, and that it is not too difficult for them to read some articles.

In this paper, I will explain what I cover when I use newspapers to teach English and the kind of exercises that I think are useful to introduce students to various characteristics of newspapers and to help them read newspaper articles. The activities that are suggested can be done by students individually or in groups in the classroom.

## Introducing Students to Newspapers

When I teach students to read newspapers, I begin by discussing why being able to read English newspapers would be useful to students of English, introducing the four English newspapers published in Japan, and giving students advice on getting started reading newspapers.

### Reasons for Reading English Newspapers

There are at least three reasons that it is useful for students to be able to read newspapers. First, newspapers are useful as material for learning English. Second, students can obtain information, particularly about other countries, that is available only in English newspapers. Third, they have news available to them wherever they might travel. Fourth, they can see how people from other countries view Japan.

1) There are several reasons that English newspapers are good material for studying English. They use natural English as it is actually used today. They carry a wide variety of information, so that anyone should be able to find something of interest, and therefore they are motivating to students. Students can obtain information on many fields, including politics, business, sports, entertainment, the arts and music, education, and social trends.

2) From English newspapers, students can obtain more information about other countries, people and cultures, and more international news than they would in a newspaper published in Japanese.

In Japan, there are many articles in English newspapers that do not appear in Japanese newspapers. English newspapers carry many articles or columns reprinted from foreign newspapers or taken from British, French, American or German news services, as well as other articles or columns written by non-Japanese. Students can get more international information than they would in a Japanese newspaper. Since these articles and columns reflect the views and values of non-Japanese people, students can learn about other cultures.

3) If students can read an English newspaper, they can find news when they are traveling in other parts of the world, as well as when they are in Japan. Throughout the world, twenty-five percent of the newspapers published are published in English (Merrill, 1984). Even in many countries where native English speakers are not a majority, or where English is mainly a second language, there is at least one English newspaper. In addition to those in Japan, some such newspapers include the *Rand Daily Mail* and the *Johannesburg Star* (South Africa), *Korean Times*, *China Daily* (China), *Daily Times* (Nigeria), *East African Standard* (Kenya), *Jerusalem Post* (Israel), *Indian Express*, *Straits Times* (Singapore), *Standard* (Thailand), *Oriental Daily News* (Hong Kong), *United Daily News* and *Central Daily News* (Taiwan), and *Bulletin Today* (the Philippines). Therefore, readers of English newspapers can read newspapers in many different countries.

4) Finally, students can read articles written about Japan and Japanese people, politics, and culture. Reading such articles helps students understand how Japan is viewed in other countries. It also helps them learn to explain Japanese culture to non-Japanese people.

**Classroom activities.** Students can be asked to look for the various characteristics of newspapers mentioned above. For example, they can be asked to find articles and information about other countries, people and cultures, articles reprinted from foreign newspapers, and other articles written by non-Japanese people. Students can also be asked to look for articles about Japan and Japanese culture and for articles that would probably not appear in Japanese newspapers. They can also be asked to look for articles that they think would be interesting. For each of these types of article, as appropriate, they can answer questions about how many they found, what topics they were about, and what countries they came from.

### English Newspapers Published in Japan

There are four English papers published in Japan. They are *The Japan Times, The Asahi Evening News, The Mainichi Daily News,* and *The Daily Yomiuri.* All four are national newspapers. About 200,000 copies of these four English newspapers are published every day, and about half of these are read by Japanese people (personal communication, Satoko Nozawa, June, 1994). In addition, some newspapers published overseas, such as *USA Today* and *The International Herald Tribune,* are available in Japan, and you can subscribe to these or buy them in a few places.

**Classroom activities.** Students can be assigned to look for English newspapers in Japan and find out what newspapers are available, where they were originally published (in Japan or abroad), how many pages they have, whether they have supplements, how much they cost, etc. They can also buy copies of an English newspaper and a Japanese newspaper on the same day and compare them to see whether they can find news articles on the same events.

## Getting Students Started Reading Newspapers

In addition to reading newspapers in the classroom, I want students to read newspapers on their own, so when I start teaching them about newspapers, I have the students subscribe to a newspaper for a month. Their ability to read newspapers will improve even faster if they do some reading on their own. I give them a list of suggestions to help them get started.

1) I encourage them to read at least one short article twice a day. I discourage them from trying to read a lot but recommend that they make it a habit to read something every day. If they set their goals too high, they tend to give up, but if they start out with a manageable goal, they can reach it every day. Gradually, as it becomes easier to read, students can increase the amount that they read.

2) I encourage students to choose articles that they are interested in reading. Reading articles that they are interested in is motivating to students, and one of the advantages of using newspapers to study English is that everyone should be able to find something of interest.

3) I encourage students to read the same type of article every day at the beginning. They can, for example, follow a particular story that they are interested in over several days.

4) I encourage students to try to read without a dictionary, at least the first time that they read an article through, guessing the meanings of words that they do not know. If there are words that they still do not understand the second or third time they read, they may want to look up some of the words, especially if these words appear several times or seem to be particularly important to understanding the meaning of the story.

5) I encourage students to try to understand the article as a whole, even if they do not understand some parts. There will probably be some parts of a newspaper article that students do not understand exactly, but they should concentrate on trying to get an overall understanding of the article rather than worrying about details that they do not understand.

6) If students are having a lot of difficulty reading newspaper articles in English, I encourage them to read a story first in a Japanese newspaper and then in an English newspaper. This will give them some background knowledge that helps them understand the English better.

**Homework**

During the period of time they are working on learning to read newspapers, students can be assigned to read one or two short newspaper articles each day. They can be assigned to write down the headlines and one- or two-sentence summaries, either in English or Japanese, depending on the students' level.

## What Is In a Newspaper

It is also useful to introduce students to the type of information that they can find in newspapers — what sections they will find in the papers, what kinds of articles there are, and what the characteristics of different kinds of articles are. To make it easier to find different kinds of information, newspapers arrange articles according to their importance and classify them broadly according to their subject matter.

Some textbooks used in Japan to teach English using newspapers deal only with news articles. However, there are many other types of useful articles and other information, and students should be aware of them. These include feature stories, business and sports news, various types of columns, editorials, news digests, reviews, various announcements, ads, weather reports, TV schedules, business statistics, etc.

**News Stories**

News stories are articles about current events, including political and military events, crimes, and natural disasters. The news stories found in the newspaper on a given day usually occurred the previous day, or at least were announced the previous day. However, some news articles that appear in English newspapers published in Japan occurred two days previously. The most important news stories appear on the front page, and less important stories appear inside the paper.

### Feature Stories

Another important type of newspaper article is the feature story. Feature stories can be about a person, a trend, a situation, etc. They are not necessarily tied to a current news event, though they may give background information about a situation in the news. In some cases, feature stories give useful information for the readers' daily lives, for example, information related to health and safety. Feature stories are not found on the front page. There are usually several feature stories together on one page.

### The Business Section

In addition to news articles and feature stories, all newspapers have a section with articles and information about business. This section includes news and feature stories related to trade, companies, new products, finance, and the economy; stock market reports; and exchange rates for foreign currencies.

### The Sports Section

Newspapers also have sports news and features. The sports section includes news stories about sports events and other sports-related news, rankings of teams and players, and so on. The sports sections of English newspapers published in Japan carry news of foreign sports such as American baseball, Japanese sports such as sumo, and international sports such as World Cup soccer.

### Columns

Newspapers also carry columns. They are essays written regularly (daily, weekly, or sometimes every two or three days) on certain subject areas, giving the writer's opinion, informing the reader about a particular topic, answering questions from readers, etc. Columns often have a name and/or a picture of the columnist. Several columns are often found together on one page. Some of the types of columns are personal advice columns, etiquette advice columns, food columns, and political columns.

### Editorials

An editorial is a specific type of column. It expresses the views of the editors of that particular newspaper, usually on a political or social issue. Editorials are found on the editorial page, which has other political or social opinion pieces. The editorial page is usually the same page every day. Except for *The Japan Times*, English newspapers published in Japan use editorials translated from the Japanese edition. In English newspapers published in Japan, editorials from foreign newspapers or from other Japanese newspapers may appear on this page.

### Letters to the Editor

Letters to the Editor are letters written by readers of a newspaper. They express the opinions of the readers, usually related to information or opinions that have appeared in the newspaper. They generally appear either on the editorial page or facing the editorial page.

### Reviews

Reviews are a particular type of column. In reviews, writers give their opinions about something. Most reviews are of movies or books. Generally, the writer summarizes the story and gives his/her opinion. In addition, restaurants, plays, concerts, art shows, and other events are reviewed. Readers use reviews to help them decide what movies to see, what restaurants to go to, etc.

### Schedules and Cultural Events

Newspapers also have information about radio and television. They print radio and TV schedules every day, along with brief explanations of some programs. On the same page, there may also be short articles on such cultural events as art exhibits and concerts, or other articles related to entertainment.

### Other

Newspapers published in Japan also have comics, classified advertisements, and weather reports.

### Classroom Activities

Students can be asked to find the following in a newspaper:

1. News stories
2. Feature stories
3. Business news stories
4. Business feature stories
5. The stock market report
6. Exchange rates for foreign currency
7. Sports news stories
8. Sports feature stories
9. Columns
10. The main editorial
11. An editorial reprinted from another newspaper
12. Letters to the Editor
13. Reviews
14. Radio and television schedules
15. Comics
16. Classified advertisements
17. Weather reports

In addition to identifying different types of articles and information students can also be asked more specific questions, such as what other kinds of information they can find in the business and sports sections, which of the feature stories and columns are about Japan and which are about other countries, what kinds of columns they find, what the editorial is about, what movies, books, etc., are reviewed, and what the letters to the editor are about.

## How Newspapers Are Organized

After introducing the different types of articles and information, I explain to students how newspapers are organized, beginning with the front page.

Editors do not place information in a newspaper at random. Certain information is found in certain places. Newspapers are organized basically the same way every day. The same kinds of articles or information are usually found in the same places each day. The advantages of this are that it allows editors to include more information in limited space and that it allows readers to find information more quickly and easily.

### The Front Page

The front page always has the most important news stories of the day, both international and domestic news. Among these news stories on the front page, three things indicate the importance of a story — the location on the page, the size of the type in the headline, and the number of columns wide it is. The most important story is usually in one of the upper corners, and other important ones are usually in the upper half of the first page. The larger the type in the headline, the more important the story. In rare cases, stories are so important that they have banner headlines — headlines across the entire width of the page. A less important indicator of the importance of a story is the number of columns wide the story is.

### The Inside Pages

Less important international and domestic news appears after the first page. Domestic news usually immediately follows the front page, and international news follows the domestic news. Some English newspapers published in Japan have a page for news from the Asia/ Pacific region as well. As mentioned above, there are also one or more pages of business-related news and sports-related news, etertainment, radio/TV schedules and information, features, reviews, etc. There is usually an index on the front page which indicates where each of these types of information are found.

**Classroom Activities**

Students can be asked to look at a newspaper and answer questions about how many articles there are on the front page, which seems to be the most important article and where it is located, what the three largest headlines are, and so on. They can also compare two or more English newspapers according to what articles they have on the front page and whether the most important article is the same. They can also compare the front pages of an English newspaper and a Japanese newspaper.

## Headlines

Another topic that I cover with my classes is the grammar and vocabulary of headlines. Headlines help readers get an idea of what a particular article is about so that they can decide which articles they want to read.

Headlines are like one- or two-sentence summaries of the articles, but they are shortened because of limits on space. Certain short words are deleted, words are abbreviated, and short words are often used in place of longer, more common words. Headlines are written according to certain rules, which can be used to reconstruct what the summary sentence was.

**Words Omitted from Headlines**

Certain small words are routinely left out of headlines. For example, *and* is generally omitted from headlines, and is often replaced by a comma. In the headline, "Freezing Temperatures, Snow Hit Tokyo Again," *and* has been omitted between *temperatures* and *snow* and replaced with a comma. Other short words, including articles, be verbs, and pronouns are also commonly omitted. In the headline, "Dean says academic quality primary goal of law school," *the* has been omitted before *dean, is* and *the* before *primary*, and *the* before *law school*. If it were a sentence, it might read, "The dean says academic quality is the primary goal of the law school."

### Verb Tenses

The verb tenses of headlines also differ from sentences. In headlines, the simple past tense is represented by the simple present tense. In the headline, "U.S. Asks Japan to Join in Space Project," the U.S. has already asked Japan to join the project, so as a sentence, it would be, "The U.S. asked Japan to join the space project." In the case of headlines in the present continuous tense, the be verb is omitted. For example, the headline, "State surplus rising despite market slump," would be written, "The state surplus is rising despite the market slump" as a sentence. Headlines use an infinitive to indicate future tense. In the headline, "Kyoto Artists to Visit China," *to visit* indicates that this is something that the artists plan to do in the future. The participle form of a verb is used to indicate the passive voice. The headline "Tax Cut Plan Given to Study Council" would be rewritten as the sentence "A tax cut plan has been (or was) given to the study council."

### Colons

Colons are used in headlines differently from their use in ordinary writing. Sometimes colons are used in headlines to give the source of information or a quotation. For example, "Study: Roads need fixing," indicates that the source of the information that roads need fixing is a study (of road conditions). In addition, people's names or official positions are sometimes used as the source of information or a quotation in the headline.

### Abbreviations

Also, there are many different abbreviations that are used in headlines, many more than can be discussed here. Names of countries and other place names are often abbreviated, as are regions of the world, governmental and inter-governmental agencies, political parties, and other organizations. Some other common abbreviations are *intl* (international), *govt* (government), *N-* (nuclear), *q'finals* and *s'finals* (quarterfinals and semifinals), and *m* (meter).

### Other

In addition, headlines use short verbs and nouns, some of which are not commonly used in ordinary speech or writing. Some of the common ones are *boom* (*increases greatly* or *a great increase*), *nix* (*reject*), *eye* (*consider*), *hail* (praise), *stand* or *stance* (position on an issue), *pact* (agreement; treaty), *cut* (decrease), and *mull* (consider).

In headlines, the name of a country's capital city may be used to mean that country's government. For example, *Tokyo* would be used for *the government of Japan*, *Washington* for *the government of the U.S.*, and so on.

### Classroom Activities

To study headlines, students can try to find each of the following in a newspaper:

A. omission of "and," a be verb, or an article
B. a simple present tense verb representing a simple past action/event
C. -ing form without a be verb representing present continuous tense
D. "to" with a verb representing future tense
E. a participle form used for passive voice
F. abbreviations
G. the name of a capital city used to represent the government of a country
H. short words commonly used in headlines (lists of such words are found in Kitao and Kitao, 1991 and Kitao and Kitao, 1992)

Students can also be given headlines (or they can choose headlines themselves) to be rewritten as sentences or to reconstruct headlines that have been cut up.

## The Organization of News Articles

In addition, I cover the organization of news articles. It is easier for students to understand news articles in English if they understand how news articles are generally organized.

### Bylines, Credit Lines and Datelines

At the beginning of a news article there may be a credit line, a byline, and/or a dateline. The credit line indicates which news service an article came from, if that was the source of the article. There are several major international wire services, including Associated Press (AP) and United Press International (UPI) (the United States); Kyodo and Jiji (Japan); Reuter (Great Britain); Agence France Presse (AFP) (France); and Deutsche Presse Agentur (DPA) (Germany).

A byline gives the name of the person who wrote an article. Bylines are not included on all news stories, however. They are generally used to reward a good article or to encourage a young writer.

Datelines indicate the date that an article was written and its place of origin, that is, where the story was reported from. (The place of origin may not be the same as the place where the story occurred.) Many newspapers today do not include the date the article was written.

**Classroom activities.** Students can be asked to find various bylines, credit lines and datelines.

### The Arrangement of News Articles

The general arrangement for a news article is an *inverted pyramid* arrangement, that is, it moves from the most important and general information to more specific and less important information. The purpose of such an arrangement is to allow the editor to cut information easily by cutting material from the end of the article.

The first paragraph of a news story is the *lead*. It includes the most important facts of the story. In the lead, students should look for the information *who, what, when, where, why*, and/or *how* (5W's and 1 H), depending on what is important in the particular news article. (Since leads are brief, they do not usually include all six pieces of information.)

In addition to giving the most important facts of the story, the lead is supposed to interest the reader in the article. The lead, particularly the first phrase of the lead, should catch the reader's interest and attention and make him/her want to read on, for example, by mentioning the name of a famous person (who), a well-known place (where), or an unusual incident (what).

**Classroom activities.** Students can choose or be given five articles and be asked to fill out the following chart with information from the leads. (Not every space can be filled.)

| | Headline | What | Who | When | Where | Why | How |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | | | | | | | |
| 2 | | | | | | | |
| 3 | | | | | | | |
| 4 | | | | | | | |
| 5 | | | | | | | |

Students can also take articles in which the paragraphs are cut up and put them in order.

## The Grammar of Newspaper Articles

I also discuss some characteristics of the grammar of newspaper articles. Sentences in newspaper articles tend to be shorter than in ordinary written English, but with as much information as possible included in each sentence, allowing the writer to put more information in the limited amount of space available.

Writers of news articles tend to omit relative pronouns, often placing the words that would normally be part of a relative clause in front of the noun rather than after it. For example, a news writer would likely use *labor union president John Doe* rather than *John Doe, who is president of the labor union*. Writers also use noun phrases giving more information about the subject. For example, *labor union president John Doe* may be referred to later as *the 46-year-old electrician*. While both of these phrases refer to the same person, the second gives additional information — his age and occupation.

Similarly, news articles avoid using *of* forms and prepositional phrases. For example, a writer would use *Los Angeles native* rather than *native of Los Angeles*, *labor-management relations* rather than *relations between labor and management*, *the country's unemployment rate* rather than *the rate of unemployment in the country*, or *a Tokyo-based company* rather than *a company based in Tokyo*.

Specifying the source of information is important in news articles, particularly when the information is not general knowledge or is an opinion. This helps readers judge how reliable the information is likely to be. Therefore, reported speech is used frequently. Such phrases as "The Prime Minister said that. . . ," "Government sources report that. . . ," etc., are common. When the source is not specified, writers often use words like *allegedly*, *reportedly*, and *supposedly*.

Except for columns, reviews, and editorials, articles in newspapers are supposed to be objective. If an opinion is expressed in a news story, the writer should state whose opinion it is. This objectivity in news stories is the ideal for Western journalism.

### Classroom Activities

Students can be asked to find examples of the following:

1. sentences where the relative pronoun has been omitted
2. more than one noun phrase being used to refer to the same person
3. omission of "of" or any other pronouns
4. sources of information being mentioned
5. words such as *allegedly*, *reportedly*, and *supposedly*

## Conclusion

Using this information and these practice exercises, students can become familiar with English newspapers and comfortable reading them.

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## Appendix

### REVIEW EXERCISES

Year _____ Dept. _____ Number ________ Name __________

Use a copy of an English newspaper and answer the following questions. If the question is not applicable (for example, if the type of article asked about in the question does not appear on that day), write "NA."

1. How many pages are there?
2. How many pages are taken up by news, business, sports, TV and radio schedules, and feature stories?

| type | No. of pages | type | No. of pages |
|---|---|---|---|
| news | | TV & radio schedule | |
| business | | feature stories | |
| sports | | | |

3. What is on each page?

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| page 1 | 6 | 11 |
| 2 | 7 | 12 |
| 3 | 8 | |
| 4 | 9 | |
| 5 | 10 | |

4. What is the most important news story? Where is it? How many columns does it take? What percentage of the page does it take up? Does it have a photo?
5. What is the second most important news story? Where is it? How many columns does it take? What percentage of the page does it take up? Does it have a photo?
6. How many news articles are there on the front page? How many of them are domestic news? international news?
7. Classify the news articles on the front page according to dateline, credit line, and whether they have a byline.

dateline
credit line
with byline　　　　without byline

8. Where is the index? What page do you find news articles on? business news? radio and TV schedules? sports news?

9. Where do you find editorials? columns? feature stories? information about the stock market?

10. Is the editorial reprinted from another newspaper? If so, from what newspaper? When was it originally published?

11. On what page do you find reviews? What is being reviewed? Is the reviewer Japanese or non-Japanese?

12. On what page do you find TV and radio schedules? What else do you see on that page?

13. On what page(s) do you find comics? How many are there?

14. On what page do you find classified ads? How many are there? What are they about?

15. On what page(s) do you find letters to the editor? How many are there? Were they written by Japanese or non-Japanese people? If any of the letters were written by non-Japanese people, can you tell what country the writer came from?

16. On what page(s) do you find reprints of articles? How many are there? What are they about? What publications do they come from?

17. Where do you find international news articles? domestic news articles? How many of each are there?

18. What are the three largest headlines, in order of size?
   a.
   b.
   c.

19. Look for examples of headlines with the following characteristics, and fill in the chart with the page number, the headline, and the headline rewritten as a regular sentence.
   a. "and" omitted and replaced with a comma
   b. a *be* verb omitted
   c. a pronoun omitted
   d. an article omitted
   e. a simple present tense verb that refers to a past event

f. an *-ing* form of the verb
g. "to" and a verb
h. a past participle used for the passive voice
i. three headlines with abbreviations for names of countries or regions
j. an abbreviation with an apostrophe
k. an abbreviation with a period
l. the name of a capital city used to refer to the government of that country
m. three other abbreviations
n. three short words often used in headlines

Page Headline Regular Sentence

a.
b.
c.
d.
e.
f.
g.
h.
i.
j.
k.
l.
m.
n.

20. Find three wire services, besides American and Japanese ones. What are they?

a. b. c.

21. Find three articles with bylines. Who wrote the articles?

headline author

a.
b.
c.

22. Find three articles with datelines outside of Japan and the US. Where did the articles come from? What were the dates?

headline place date

a.

b.

c.

23. Find leads with the following information:

a. what, who, where, and when

b. what, who, where, and why

c. what, who, where, and how

24. Find one sentence where a relative pronoun is avoided by putting the noun phrase before the noun it modifies.

25. Find a sentence where a noun or noun phrase has been substituted for the name of a person or organization, in order to give more information about that person or organization.

26. Find two examples of sentences where "of" is avoided.

a.

b.

27. Find a direct and an indirect quote.

a.

b.

28. How many feature stories are there?

Choose five feature articles, and fill out the following chart.

Headline Topic Author(s)

a.

b.

c.

d.

e.

29. How many sports news or sports feature stories are there?

Choose four sports stories and fill out the following chart.

Headline News or feature? Sport Japanese or international?

a.

b.

c.

d.

30. Where can you find an editorial? What is the topic? Is the topic of local, national, or international interest? What is the editor's position on that issue?

31. Fill out the chart below with information about the columns that appear in the paper.

| | Page | Column | Headline | Topic | Author |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| a. | | | | | |
| b. | | | | | |
| c. | | | | | |
| d. | | | | | |

32. List the articles on the business page. How many of these are international?

33. What is the selling price of the yen against the dollar?

34. What was the Dow Jones average?

35. How many classified ads do you find? What are they?

36. Are there any foreign movies or other foreign programs on TV in the Kansai area? What are they? What channel are they on?

37. What subject is the advice column about? Is the person giving advice Japanese or non-Japanese? What is the advice given?

38. What topics do you find digests for (news, business, etc.)? How many individual stories are there in each digest?

39. What else do you find in this newspaper?

## IV. Teaching Culture

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# 13. Teaching Culture in Foreign Language Instruction in the United States

Kenji Kitao

## Abstract

For almost a century, the importance of learning about culture as a part of foreign language instruction has been recognized, though it was not until the 1970s that it was widely emphasized. However, even then, the teaching of culture was not well developed. The purpose of this paper is to look at the successes and failures of the past in order to learn from them.

In this paper, I have discussed the three areas of teaching culture (bilingual/bicultural education and foreign language instruction) and the three areas within the latter (understanding the target language, international understanding, and intercultural communication). I have also discussed how professional organizations in foreign language instruction have responded to related trends, teaching techniques that have been introduced, the training of foreign language teachers, relevant materials, and ways in which teaching culture has been used in foreign language teaching programs in the United States. Finally, I have listed the benefits of teaching culture.

## Introduction

Teaching culture has been considered important in foreign language instruction for almost a century. Jespersen (1904) stated that learning about the culture of another country is the highest purpose of language teaching. However, it was not until more recent years that teaching culture in language courses has been widely emphasized. In the 1970s, teaching culture was one of two important trends that developed in foreign language instruction, the other being individualization of language instruction (Lafayette, 1975a). The theme of the 1975 Central States Conference was "New Challenges, New Opportunities: Foreign Languages in a Multi-Ethnic Society" (Lafayette, 1975b), and teaching culture drew much attention at the 1979 Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) Conference (Kitao, 1979).

In spite of this interest, teaching culture was not developed well enough in English language instruction in the 1970s (Kitao, 1977). In order to learn from the successes and the mistakes of the past, it is useful to consider the teaching of culture in language instruction in the United States. In this paper, I will review the teaching of culture and its related fields through publications until the end of the 1970s. I will discuss the background of teaching culture, movements of foreign language instruction, and benefits of teaching culture.

## Background of Teaching Culture in the United States

The discussion of the background of teaching culture in foreign language instruction in the United States can be divided into two areas: teaching culture as part of foreign language instruction and bilingual/bicultural education. The former includes three areas: 1) understanding the target language, 2) international understanding, that is, understanding the speakers of the target language, their countries, and their cultures, and 3) intercultural communication, that is, communicating with native speakers of that language.

### Understanding Target Languages

Culture was not considered significant in foreign language instruction until the direct method was introduced at the end of the nineteenth century (Lafayette, 1975c), but culture did not play an important role even then. Language teachers began emphasizing culture after linguists and cultural anthropologists made the relationships between language and culture clearer with the development of structural linguistics. Sapir (1970) stated that it is not possible to understand even a simple poem without understanding culture — the whole life of the community and its overtones. Based on writings such as these, language teachers came to realize that language was deeply rooted in culture and could not be separated from it. In vocabulary, for example, similar words in different languages have different meanings and nuances. However, language learners tended to just substitute a word in L1 for a similar word in L2, as if words could be treated like mathematical symbols (Gritner, 1969).

Culture also influences grammar. For example, the task of learning pronouns in Spanish involves "feelings" that are culturally associated with each pronoun (the politeness, groupness, the ego, etc.) (Morain, 1970). Plural and singular forms in English are not only a matter of numbering but also of the world view of English-speaking people, and students of English who do not understand this world view cannot learn them easily. Each pronoun in Japanese is associated with complex vertical human relations, and it is not possible to learn them without understanding Japanese culture. It is useful to present the cultural foundation for grammar simultaneously with structure so that the students get the necessary insight into the ways that the grammatical forms reflect cultural values and world views (Bourgeacq, 1970).

Since the development of the oral method, systematic study of grammar and drills of sentence patterns have assisted learners in learning to use sentence patterns. However, when using drills based only on language that do not take into account semantic meanings, learners do not focus on meaning at all. They may continue to misunderstand vocabulary, grammar and meaning until they learn something of the culture of the target language. Without understanding cultural meanings, it is not possible to understand language as its native speakers do, no matter how well they can manipulate vocabulary and grammatical forms of the language.

## International Understanding

International understanding has been emphasized in foreign language instruction in the United States beginning earlier in this century. The Secondary Education Board, Milton, Massachusetts (1948) emphasized the importance of international understanding in 1933 when they declared that one of the practical values of foreign-language study was "the breaking down of the barriers of the provincialism and the building up of the spirit of international understanding and friendliness, leading toward world peace" (p. 104). In 1956, the Modern Language Association policy pointed out three contributions of foreign language teaching, two of which were experiences with the foreign culture and information about the foreign culture, both of which contribute to international understanding (M.L.A., 1956). Kirch (1970, p. 414) stated ". . .it (foreign-language study) has the potential to liberate the mono-cultural individual from his provincialism and to make him tolerant of other viewpoints, beliefs and ways of life."

Beaujour (1969) defines the purpose of foreign language education as true understanding. The purpose of this true understanding is to avoid hating, despising, and misunderstanding.

International understanding was the center of foreign language education in the late 1960s. Two of the three trends Banathy (1974) found in publications in 1968 were international understanding through the study of foreign languages and emphasis on the important role of culture. Also, one of the goals set by a working committee at the Northeast Conference in 1968 was that foreign language learners reach the stage of being able to cope well with the foreign culture (Banathy, 1974).

International understanding was emphasized as one of the goals of foreign language education in the United States for half a century.

Studying a foreign language in the United States came to include the study of the cultures of the people who speak that language. Edgerton (1971) and Morain (1970) emphasized that foreign language learners should understand themselves and be broad minded toward people from different languages and cultures. The working committees of the Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages 1970 advocated helping foreign language learners recognize universals in human relations (Jursi, 1970). In addition, the students' understanding of self and of the students' own culture came to be emphasized, too.

## Intercultural Communication

Understanding language alone is not sufficient for good intercultural communication. Cultural aspects of language and the cultural backgrounds of speakers of that language have to be understood as well. Seelye (1968, p. 43) argued that

> since the basic aim of a language class is to have the students learn to communicate in the foreign language, it is obvious that if fairly common emotions and thoughts cannot be understood apart from their cultural referents, then these referents must be taught in the language classroom, and that some interesting examples of difficulties in cross-cultural communication that arise from ignorance of the target culture are recounted in several articles.

Nostrand (1967) stated that in addition to native language skills, intercultural communication requires the ability to handle the target language and some insight into the culture and society of speakers of that language.

During World War II, American soldiers were sent overseas and encountered speakers of other languages with different cultural backgrounds, and cultural differences became more important. One purpose of the Army Specialized Training Program was to decrease the cultural gaps between Americans and their enemies (Kelly, 1969).

In order to achieve the goal of increased international understanding, Fries (1945, p. 58) stated:

> He (a learner) can, however, set himself the task of attaining as complete a realization as possible of the common situations in which the language operates for the native speaker. To do so. . . he must be really interested in the details of the whole life-experience of the people.

After World War II, Americans encountered people from different cultures more frequently, and teaching culture was emphasized more. However, many Americans studied abroad without much preparation in the 1960s, and by the end of the 1960s, foreign language teachers recognized lack of orientation programs for study abroad as being a problem. Foreign language teachers in those days did not teach their students how to cope with new situations in foreign countries (Bourque, 1974).

Orientation is very important for students planning to study abroad. Raymond C. Clark, the director of the master's program at the School for International Training, argued for the necessity of orientation programs for study abroad and pointed out that there were not enough such programs in the United States (Bourque, 1974). Many foreign language teachers came to realize that knowledge of both language and culture were necessary before going abroad (Bourque, 1974). At the fifth seminar at Sandanona, professional people and laypeople concerned with study abroad advocated orientation programs as the key to success in studying abroad (Windows on the World, 1973). Clark states the importance of orientation programs as follows:

> . . .predeparture orientation/language period is more effective than a sudden and total immersion in a foreign culture, particularly for those students who are undertaking their first foreign experience or who are bound for "different" culture

(Bourque, 1974, p. 343).

It has been shown that orientations decrease problems related to study and living in foreign countries. Students in Maryland experienced little culture shock and few intercultural problems as a result of a one-year orientation program (Bourque, 1974). Wallach (1973) reported on semester-long programs of culture orientation at the University of Wisconsin at Green Bay that acted as preparation for a trip abroad the following semester. The programs, which covered such countries as Britain, France, Germany, the USSR, and Spanish-speaking South American countries, included preparation for actual cross-cultural experience, examination of stereotypes and prejudices as well as attitudes and other intangibles of culture. In addition, students were encouraged to explore their own interests within the context of the target culture. This arrangement worked very effectively, and students benefited from the program and their experience abroad. They demonstrated a more international outlook with greater understanding of the target culture and they understood themselves better, showed more self-confidence, and had increased motivation for foreign language study. Language proficiency was improved greatly in a three-week intensive orientation held by the Experiment in International Living and the Peace Corps in 1971 (Bourque, 1974).

By the end of the 1970s, predeparture orientations were believed to be necessary for students going abroad, and most study abroad programs held orientations using professionals. Teaching culture became more common with the increase in and the necessity of intercultural communication.

## Bilingual/Bicultural Education

Another important trend in language teaching in the United States in the 1960s was that the teaching of culture was emphasized not only for understanding the target language, international understanding and intercultural communication but also for helping Americans understand each other. This new movement encouraged Americans to understand their own individual backgrounds rather than to just think of themselves as Americans in a "melting pot." This movement was particularly popular in the 1970s. In 1967, the bilingual act was passed and since then bilingual education has been emphasized. The same trend can be seen in TESOL (Kitao, 1974; Hazumi, 1974; Morito, 1975; Otani, 1976; Kitao, 1976).

## Trends in Foreign Language Instruction

I will discuss teaching culture in foreign language instruction from the viewpoint of 1) professional organizations of language teaching and activities of professionals in language teaching, 2) foreign language teachers, 3) teaching materials, and 4) foreign language programs.

### Professional Organizations of Language Teaching and Activities of Professionals in Language Teaching

Dewey (1897/1968) was already arguing for the importance of the social aspects of language in language instruction as far back as the late 19th century. However, teaching culture was not emphasized in foreign language instruction until after World War II. Some teachers came to realize that they had to teach culture, because without culture, they were just teaching meaningless symbols or symbols to which students attached the wrong meanings (Georgetown University, 1951). In 1953, a new idea of the benefit of teaching culture – that teaching culture contributed to general and liberal education – was introduced by the M.L.A. (Modern Language Association, 1953).

Thus the importance of teaching culture came to be widely recognized and, in the 1950s and 1960s, one of foreign language teachers' major arguments centered around the best definition of culture

(Seelye, 1975). Many different definitions were proposed. Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1954) examined 300 definitions of culture.

Teaching culture was emphasized more and more in the 1960s. In 1960, the Northeast Conference of Teaching of Modern Languages invited both linguists and anthropologists, proposed a definition of culture, and clarified the role that it should play in language teaching. Their recommendations caused many language teachers to reappraise what they had been teaching as culture and extend it beyond factual data (Meras, 1964). One of the three objectives of this discipline was "cultural insight and awareness." In a book published in the same period, Rivers (1968) set six classes of objectives in the teaching of foreign language, and she included two concerning culture. Brooks (1966) depicted the discipline at that time as "a vigorous adolescent who has left home to start out on his own and is seeking a star to hitch his wagon to" (p. 71).

For the most part, culture taught as part of language teaching was "Culture with a big C," which includes such areas as art and literature. Brooks (1968) argued for the importance of "culture with a small c," which includes information about everyday life and the emphasis of teaching culture in foreign language instruction was changed from "Culture with a big C" to "culture with a small c" (Lafayette, 1975c). The profession of language education considered the importance of "culture with a small c" in the late 1960s and the early 1970s. Professionals also needed to consider what to teach in the area of culture and how to teach and test it (Morain, 1970). Brooks (1964) listed 64 items of culture that he felt were important to teach. A committee of the Pacific Northwest Conference on Foreign Language Teaching held in 1968 presented cultural items to teach at each level (Nostrand, 1968).

Three techniques for teaching culture, "culture assimilators" (Piedler, Mitchella and Triandis, 1971), "culture capsules" (Taylor and Sorensen, 1961), and "culture clusters" (Meade and Morain, 1973) were introduced. These, however, were only techniques. They were not integrated programs, and they did not include guidelines about what should be taught, in what order cultural items should be presented, etc.

Upshur (1966), Seelye (1968), Nostrand (1974), and Clark (1972) made proposals about what should be tested in relation to cultural awareness and considered techniques for testing it. However, no standard culture test had been made by the end of the 1970s. Seelye examined six standard Spanish tests in 1969 and found that most test items were related to "Culture with a big C."

Thus the importance of teaching culture in foreign language instruction was recognized and was one of eight trends in foreign language instruction around 1970. Cultural aspects of foreign languages received more attention (Clark, 1972). The theme of the 1972 Northeast Conference was "culture in language" (Clark, 1972) and the theme of the 1975 Central States Conference was "culture," and it is clear that "culture" was one of two areas which were developed in the first half of the 1970s.

### Foreign Language Teachers

The importance of teaching culture in foreign language instruction was discussed by professional people since the 1950s, but many foreign language teachers wondered whether they should teach culture in their foreign language classes (Morain, 1970). Rivers (1968) argued that foreign language teachers were not trained to teach culture. By 1968, foreign language teachers recognized that teaching culture was important in foreign language instruction, but they did not have adequate training to do so (Seelye, 1968). Since teachers did not get enough training in the teaching of culture, the Seattle Symposium, held in 1971, reported to the profession that master's programs should include equally culture, language training, linguistics, and language teaching methodology (Altman, 1971).

Foreign language teachers recognized the necessity of teaching culture during the 1960s. However they were not adequately trained to do so. They argued for better training for teachers.

### Teaching Materials

In the 1950s, the importance of teaching culture began to be recognized, and there was a trend to include the teaching of culture in foreign language instruction. The Modern Language Association (1953) advocated teaching materials based on cultural orientation which explained the differences between the target culture and the students' own culture.

As interest in teaching "culture with a small c" increased in the language teaching profession, it became more common in foreign language textbooks (Lafayette, 1975a). Thus new materials for the oral method included much information about everyday life in the target culture (Smith and Leamon, 1969). By the end of the 1970s, teaching materials included information about culture in various ways, based on practical research. The materials tended to include cultures of countries close to the United States and various cultures within the United States (Jenks, 1975; Fryer, 1975). Methods of teaching culture were also studied (Fryer, 1975). By the end of the 1970s, foreign language textbooks which made use of culture in various ways had been produced. However, there was still criticism that not enough cultural information was included in them (Jenks, 1975).

### Foreign Language Programs

Since 1950, the inclusion of information about culture has increased greatly in foreign language instruction. The cultural information that was included was mainly "Culture with a big C," which emphasizes literature, art, etc. Marquardt (1967) and Christian (1967) studied the teaching of culture using pieces of literature. However, as "culture with a small c" was adopted in foreign language instruction, teaching culture through literature was criticized by Nostrand (1966), Leward (1968) and Inhoof (1968).

Troyanovich (1972) proposed that foreign language curricula should emphasize anthropological culture rather than traditional literature. In addition, Nelson (1972) emphasized the importance of "culture with a small c" and recommended making foreign culture rather than foreign language a required course at the college level.

The teaching of culture was adopted in foreign language instruction in various ways. There were two important trends in foreign language instruction: programs combining foreign language instruction and study abroad, and foreign culture instruction in English in elementary foreign language courses. Hoe and Spack (1975) reported on a short trip to France by high school students, and Wallach (1973) reported on the effect of studying abroad after one semester of foreign culture instruction. Students' understanding of the foreign culture deepened, they understood themselves better, and their motivation to study the foreign language increased after participating in these programs. The latter program included lectures explaining various aspects of the target culture, presentations by students on their particular interests in relation to the target culture, and field trips to places related to the target culture. Keller and Ferguson (1976) and Klayman (1976) reported on programs at the college level, and Bourque and Chehy (1976) reported on programs at the high school level. All researchers reported that students liked the inclusion of teaching about the target culture, and as a result of the programs, the number of students who wanted to study foreign languages increased.

As I have discussed, teaching culture in foreign language instruction in the United States was increased as intercultural communication increased in the 1950s. The change from emphasis on "Culture with a big C" to "culture with a small c" has taken place since 1968, and teaching about daily life in the target culture was widely adopted. Many study abroad programs were started. Cultural instruction continued to be improved through the end of the 1970s.

## Benefits of Culture Instruction

As I have already discussed, we can understand the target language better, enhance international understanding, communicate better with people of different cultures, and understand our own culture better by studying other cultures. In addition, there are other benefits of studying culture.

First, studying culture gives students a reason to study the target language (Stainer, 1971). Wallach (1973) found that teachers of foreign languages and foreign literature knew that understanding cultures made studying foreign languages and literature more meaningful.

Bals (1971) reported on a study that compared American students who studied cultural patterns of German teenagers in German for ten minutes every day for ten weeks with students who studied German only from a textbook. In the group that had additional cultural instruction, none of the students dropped the course (compared to three in the other group) and the grades of the students who received cultural instruction were better. Many students had studied foreign languages just because they were required to. In this case, studying culture gave students a reason for studying foreign languages.

Second, studying culture makes studying foreign languages real. Students have difficulty relating to people of another culture without knowing anything about them. Chastain (1971) argued that explaining cultural aspects of language would help students relate the abstract sounds and forms of a language to real people and places.

Third, studying culture increases students' interest. Students like activities based on culture, including singing, dancing, role playing, skits, doing research on countries and people, etc. Wallach (1973) reported that there was a high correlation between the foreign language which students were studying and their choice of foreign countries to visit or live in. The study of culture increases students' curiosity about and interest in the target countries, their people, and their culture.

Fourth, studying cultures motivates students to study foreign languages. Brooks (1968) argued that this type of motivation is very strong. Keller and Ferguson (1976) reported that Murray State University offered a course entitled "A Cultural Introduction to Foreign Language Study" during both terms of the academic year 1974-1975. Several professors introduced the cultures of the foreign languages they taught. As the result of this course, students showed an increased interest in studying foreign languages and foreign cultures. Klayman (1976) reported the results of offering a course entitled "Contemporary France: Its Heritage and Influence," which was established in order to reverse the decline in enrollment in French in a four-year college. This lecture course taught in English was very popular, and Klayman strongly suggested that other foreign language departments offer similar courses. Leward (1974) reported on the results of classes based on culture in sophomore French and Spanish classes which was offered for two years. Students evaluated the classes based on culture more highly than traditional classes.

In addition to such long-term motivation, teaching culture is effective for short-term motivation. Stainer (1971) argued that introduction of culture is very useful for instant motivation. He emphasized it by saying "When pace lags, when the eyes drop, when the heat comes, the smart teacher will have the cultural unit" (p. 63).

Fifth, studying culture is useful not only for understanding people of other cultures but to help students understand themselves and their own culture. Rivers (1968) argued that most students were culture bound, that is, their entire view of the world was determined by the values of their own culture and they had difficulty understanding or accepting people with worldviews other than their own. This aspect of teaching culture was emphasized in the United States in the 1970s.

Sixth, studying culture gives students a liking for the people of that culture (Cooke, 1970).

Seventh, studying culture is a useful part of general education. The Modern Language Association has held this position from its early days (M. L. A., 1953).

## Conclusion

As I have discussed, studying culture is useful as part of foreign language instruction because of its influence on language and communication. It has additional benefits as well, including increased interest and motivation for language study, improved understanding of one's own culture, and increased understanding of and liking for people of the target culture. I have not found any writers who listed disadvantages of studying cultures in foreign language classes.

By the end of the 1970s, the advantages of teaching culture in foreign language classes were virtually universally accepted, and culture was widely taught in language classes. However, questions remained about what should be taught and how it could be most beneficially taught. These questions were faced more and more in the 1980s, and in a future paper, I will discuss the teaching of culture in the 1980s and how these questions have been dealt with.

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# 14. Teaching American Culture: Content, Methods, and Techniques

Kenji Kitao

## Abstract

Though understanding English-speaking cultures is an important part of communicating effectively in English, Japanese students of English at all levels generally do not learn much about American culture — the English-speaking culture they are most likely to have contact with — in their English courses. As a result, they experience problems when they visit the United States or communicate with Americans.

If more is going to be taught about American culture, there are four areas that must be considered: 1) what to teach and how to decide what to teach, 2) what techniques to use, 3) how to get materials, and 4) how teachers can acquire the knowledge they lack.

In this paper, I have surveyed models of what to teach and have made a chart which indicates, based on studies that I have done, what topic areas of American culture Japanese students have difficulty with. I have also discussed various techniques that have been proposed for teaching culture, materials for teaching English language and culture and how they could be improved, study-abroad programs and how students are prepared for them, and recommendations for how teachers could be better prepared to teach culture and how orientation programs for students preparing to study abroad could be improved.

It is well known that understanding the culture(s) of the people who speak a language is important to effective communication in that language. However, studies have indicated that Japanese students do not learn much about American culture in English classes at any level, that they have learned little about American culture from any source, and that, as a result, they experience problems in adjusting to the United States and in communicating with Americans (Kitao and Kitao, 1989; Kitao, 1977). Students should be taught more about American culture as a part of their English instruction and should have some cultural orientation before going to the United States. In this paper, I will discuss the questions of what to teach about American culture, how to teach it, and how to hold orientation programs.

While it is appropriate to teach about English-speaking cultures other than the United States, I have chosen to emphasize the United States in this paper for two major reasons. First, among native English speakers, Japanese are most likely to be in contact with Americans. Of the more than 11.7 million Japanese who went overseas in 1992, by far the most, more than 3.6 million (31%) went to the United States. Of the non-Japanese who came to Japan in 1992 (almost four million), more than 570,000 (15%) were Americans. The next most common English-speaking nationality was British, 100,000 of whom (3%) came to Japan (*Jiji Nenkan*, 1994). Second, my own personal experience and research focus have been in the United States.

As Nostrand (1974) has pointed out, four questions should be considered in teaching culture: (1) how to select what is worth teaching, (2) what techniques to use, (3) how to get materials, and (4) how a teacher can acquire knowledge he/she lacks. I will discuss each of these questions.

## What to Teach about American Culture and Sources of Material

Various studies have been done on items included in culture. Hall

(1959) constructed "A Map of Culture" which shows various combinations of the Primary Message System (a list of very broad areas of culture which influence human behavior) through a two-dimensional grid with the PMS on the left and their adjectival counterparts across the top. There are one hundred items in this chart, but many of them are very abstract and difficult to use directly in classroom teaching. Sidman (1975) adapted this chart to teaching German culture and identified a concrete item in German culture for each item on Hall's map. Brooks' (1964) "Patterns of Culture" is based on daily life and is more concrete than Hall's system. It has some directions for teaching each item, so it is more understandable and easier for teachers to use in instruction. Allen's (1955) "A Checklist for American Culture" is a classification system for items of American culture. It shows items of American culture and reference materials related to those items. This is very helpful to teachers in finding sources, and if there are areas of culture that they are not familiar with, they can find sources for this information. Even though this checklist covers extensive areas in American culture and includes some items on the daily life aspects of culture, it is more theoretical than practical and goes into the deep structure of American culture.

Teachers can use these three studies in teaching about American culture. However, neither these studies nor Sidman's was designed specifically for Japanese students. The most effective way to teach American culture, particularly in the intermediate and advanced levels of English instruction in Japan, is to teach items that are unfamiliar to students, and/or which are related to their goals for learning English. For Japanese people about to leave for the United States, the latter is especially important. Needs and interests may vary according to individuals, but there are certain problems and situations commonly encountered by Japanese people who travel or live in the United States. Based on three studies of Japanese in Japan and the United States (Kitao, 1977), I have made the following chart of aspects of American culture and the level of difficultly for Japanese students. A summary of the cultural difficulties of Japanese students that were indicated in the last three studies is given in Table 1. In this table, 5 indicates the items that are the most difficult; 4, those that are next in difficulty; down to 1 for those that are the least difficult. (Items with no numbers are ones I have not been able to study.) This provides a guideline for what items should be taught about American culture.

TABLE 1
DIFFICULT ITEMS IN AMERICAN CULTURE THAT
THE JAPANESE STUDENTS ENCOUNTERED

| | Level of Difficulty |
|---|---|
| I. American Characteristics | 4 |
| Mobility | 3 |
| Competition | 3 |
| Independence | |
| Individualism | |
| Individual Possibilities | |
| Equal Relations among Individuals | |
| Privacy | |
| Hard Work | 4 |
| Honesty | 4 |
| Rationalism | |
| Freedom | |
| Indifference toward Others | |
| Principle of Give-and-Take | |
| Conservativeness | |
| Not Declining Other Person's Offer | |
| Overconfidence | |
| Expressing Themselves Freely | |
| II. Literature | 3 |
| Famous Authors | 3 |
| Well-Known Literary Works | 3 |

TABLE 1 (Continued)

| | Level of Difficulty |
|---|---|
| III. Music | 4 |
| Jazz | 3 |
| Country Music | 4 |
| IV. History | 4 |
| Independence | 5 |
| Famous Presidents | 4 |
| Famous People (Heroes) | 5 |
| V. Geography | 4 |
| States and Regions | 4 |
| Famous Places and Cities | 3 |
| Industry | |
| Climate | 3 |
| VI. Politics | 4 |
| National Government | |
| Local Government | 3 |
| VII. Religion | 4 |
| Protestant Denominations | 4 |
| Jewish Religion | 4 |
| Catholics | |
| VIII. Superstitions | 3 |
| IX. American Life | |
| Necessity of Cars | |
| Social Classes | |
| Differences of Races and Ethnic Backgrounds | |
| Racial Discrimination | |
| Cultural Life | |
| High Standard of Living | |
| Differences of Size and Quantity (Land, Building, Car, etc.) | |
| Frugality | |

TABLE 1 (Continued)

| | Level of Difficulty |
|---|---|
| X. Economy | |
| General | |
| Annual Income | 4 |
| Hourly income | |
| Shopping | 3 |
| Sale | 4 |
| Economical Shopping | 4 |
| Sales Tax | 3 |
| Money | 3 |
| Coins | 3 |
| Bills | |
| How to Carry Money | |
| Keeping money | |
| Savings Account | 3 |
| Checking Account | |
| Use of Checks | |
| Value of American Money | 4 |
| XI. Family Life | |
| General | 3 |
| Divorce | 4 |
| Size | 2 |
| Frugality | |
| Economic Life | |
| Relations among Members | |
| Relations with Grandparents | |
| Life of the Elderly | |
| Sharing Work | |
| Housekeeping | 4 |
| Home | |
| Location of Middle-Class Homes | 4 |
| Number of Rooms | 4 |

TABLE 1 (Continued)

| | Level of Difficulty |
|---|---|
| XII. Food | |
| Drink | 4 |
| Drinks with Meals | 4 |
| Liquor | 2 |
| Meal | |
| What to Eat | 2 |
| When to Eat | 3 |
| Main Dish | 2 |
| Dessert | 3 |
| XIII. Medicine | 2 |
| Where to Get It | 2 |
| Which Medicine for What | 3 |
| XIV. Education | |
| General | 4 |
| Secondary Education | 4 |
| Level of Education | 5 |
| Solving Academic Problems | 3 |
| College Education | 3 |
| Evaluation | |
| Contents | |
| Use of Library | 3 |
| Writing Papers | 4 |
| School Life | |
| Dealing with Trouble with Roommates | 3 |
| Making Friends | 3 |
| Finding a Place to Live | 4 |
| Getting along with Professors | 4 |
| XV. Clothes | 4 |
| Women's Clothes | 4 |
| Men's Clothes | 4 |
| Formal Clothes | 3 |

TABLE 1 (Continued)

| | Level of Difficulty |
|---|---|
| Informal Clothes | 3 |
| When to Dress up | |
| At Restaurants | 3 |
| At Hotels | 4 |
| On Campus | |
| On Business | 4 |
| XVI. Customs | |
| Tipping | 3 |
| Gifts | 4 |
| Appointments | |
| When Needed | 4 |
| Making Appointments | 3 |
| XVII. Time | 5 |
| Office Hours | 4 |
| When to Be Punctual | 4 |
| Transportation | 2 |
| XVIII. Leisure | 3 |
| Daily Leisure | 4 |
| Vacationing | |
| TV and Movies | 5 |
| Sports | 4 |
| XIX. Mass Communication | |
| Newspapers | 5 |
| Distribution | 4 |
| Contents | 5 |
| Magazines | 4 |
| XX. Special Days and Events | 4 |
| Holidays | 4 |
| Dates | 4 |
| What Americans Do on Those Days | 4 |

TABLE 1 (Continued)

| | Level of Difficulty |
|---|---|
| Events and Ceremonies | 4 |
| Weddings | 4 |
| Graduation | 4 |
| XXI. Names | |
| Nicknames | 4 |
| Forms of Address | 4 |
| XXII. Sex Roles | 3 |
| Women's Liberation | 3 |
| Occupations for Women | 3 |
| Women's Social Positions | 3 |
| XXIII. Measurements | 4 |
| Liquid | 3 |
| Weight | 4 |
| Area | 5 |
| Length | 2 |
| Temperature | 4 |
| XXIV. Travel | |
| Long Distance | 2 |
| Airplane | 2 |
| Train | 4 |
| Bus | 4 |
| Economical Methods | 3 |
| Short Distance | 3 |
| From Airports to Cities | |
| Buses | |
| Cars | |
| In Huge Cities | |
| In Large Cities | |
| In Small Towns | |
| To the Suburbs | |

TABLE 1 (Continued)

| | Level of Difficulty |
|---|---|
| Driving Speed Limit | 4 |
| Highways | 4 |
| When to Start Driving | 4 |
| Night Accommodations | |
| How to Find Them | 3 |
| How to Find Inexpensive Ones | 3 |
| XXV. Communication | |
| Telephone | |
| Different Types of Long-Distance Calls | 4 |
| Different Rates (Day, Evening, Night, Weekend) | 4 |
| Local Calls | 2 |
| Telegrams | 5 |
| Mail | 4 |
| Letters | 2 |
| How to Begin and End a Letter | |
| XXVI. Manners | |
| Table Seating | 4 |
| Table Setting | 4 |
| Table Manners | 4 |
| Introductions | 4 |
| Cleanliness | 3 |
| How Americans Keep Themselves Clean | 2 |
| Cosmetics | 3 |
| Manners in Conversation | |
| Manners with Women | |
| Inviting Someone for Social Activities | 4 |
| In Social Activities | 3 |
| Thank-you Notes and Showing Appreciation | 4 |
| XXVII. Nonverbal Communication | 4 |
| Differences between American and Japanese Gestures | 4 |
| Characteristic American Attitudes | 4 |

TABLE 1 (Continued)

| | Level of Difficulty |
|---|---|
| Crossing Fingers (Good Luck) | 3 |
| Shrugging One's Shoulders (I don't know.) | 2 |
| Making a Ring (O.K.) | 2 |
| Rubbing One Forefinger with the Other (Shame) | 3 |
| Uh-huh (Yes) | |
| Huh-uh (No) | 4 |
| Beckoning (Come) | |
| Nodding (Affirmative) | 2 |
| Pointing a Thumb up or down (Good or Bad) | 3 |
| Pointing to Oneself as a Speaker | 3 |
| XXVIII. Space | 4 |
| Common Speaking Distance | 4 |
| XXIX. Color | |
| Connotations of Colors | 4 |
| XXX. Getting Acquainted with Americans | |
| Making Friends | 2 |
| Dealing with Problems with Roommates or Friends | 2 |
| Topics of Conversation | 2 |
| Dating | 3 |
| Maintaining Friendly Relationships | 2 |
| Participating in Parties | 2 |
| Holding Social Activities | 5 |

## How to Teach American Culture

### Methods and Techniques for Teaching American Culture

Nostrand (1974) showed 20 types of techniques: 11 conducive chiefly to experiencing the culture and 9 for the knowledge of its patterns. In the first category were: (l) nonverbal bridges to the new culture, (2) semi-verbal bridges, (3) situational dialogue and representative monologue, (4) literature, the cinema, and the theatre, (5) audio self-instruction, broadcasts, and telecasts, (6) the mini-drama and the culture assimilator, (7) native informants and language camps, (8) pen pals, tape pals and "twinned" classes, (9) role playing, (10) the experience-based project, and (11) testing effective results in "experimental technique." Devices in the second category were: (1) observation and inference, with Socratic prompting, (2) the incidental comment, (3) systematic exposition of a topic, including individualized self-instruction, (4) participatory exposition, (5) the writing of simulations, (6) analytical techniques, (7) bibliography, (8) techniques for synthesis, and (9) testing cognitive results in "cognitive techniques."

All the techniques that Nostrand reviewed seem to be useful for English instruction in Japan. Of these, the following techniques are particularly applicable to the Japanese students.

**Dialogues.** Using dialogues is a good way to teach culture for communication purposes. Dialogues attempt to imitate the way people speak to each other in real life and present the natural linguistic forms of language in real communication situations and contain much cultural information that affects intercultural communication.

Because dialogues are based on real situations, they are more meaningful than exercises based on only linguistics. Gurry (1955) stated:

> It [using dialogues] is particularly valuable because it gives some semblance of reality to the language in the classroom. It saves repetition and learning from being purely mechanical and reveals to the minds of the learners the meanings of the sentences. The characters, the place and cause of their meeting, the expressive tones and rhythms they use, their gestures, as well as pupils' knowledge of what would be said in real life all help the duller ones to understand the meaning of the words. (p. 10)

In addition to better understanding sentences in dialogues than those in other contexts, students can learn a great deal about culture through them. The dialogue can introduce culture through exposition on the topics and information in the dialogue. By the kinds of response it demands, dialogue develops ideas and the ability to judge and recognize the speaker's emotional state through the use of intonation. Information about the relationship between the speakers is also contained in dialogues, and such issues as the expression of politeness and levels of formality in English can be demonstrated. All these reflect the target culture. The dialogue can convey the native speaker's feelings, ideas, and attitudes, and whole experiences that are peculiar to the cultural environment.

Besides being an easy way to present cultural information, a dialogue is a way that students can experience the target culture. By memorizing a dialogue and acting it out, students can not only learn behavioral patterns but can also experience feelings and reality as speakers of a target language (Rivers, 1968).

Students are more interested in participating in dialogues than in just reading or doing exercises. Thus, it is easy to get students involved in dialogues. Students' active participation is important for learning in language classes. In addition, the writer found in the interviews that some Japanese students knew certain things theoretically but could not utilize this information in practice because they had not experienced them; dialogue practice could help here.

**Explanations.** Even though dialogues can present cultural information well, there may be points that students do not understand from the dialogues and/or points that the teacher wants to make but that are too complex to present through exposition in a dialogue. Consequently, there should be some follow-up activities. Readings may be appropriate follow-ups. These can point out and explain cultural information in the dialogue and add background information. Students can also improve their reading skills and become familiar with the written forms of language through such materials.

Teachers can find information on aspects of American culture through material available in Japan, including American books, magazines, and newspapers.

**Audio-visual materials.** It is said that "Seeing is believing," and "A picture is worth a thousand words." It is not easy for students to visualize images of aspects of American culture based only on dialogues and verbal explanations. However, if, for example, students see photographs or video tapes of exteriors and interiors of American homes, they can visualize American homes. If they see American bills and coins, they know exactly what these are like. Visual materials bring a sense of reality to the classroom and help students understand American culture. The real item itself gives the strongest sense of reality, of course; movies are the next best thing; photos, posters, slides, transparencies, and filmstrips follow. Drawings and cartoons are the least realistic.

Audio materials are also much more realistic than explanations in print. There are many records and tapes, and it is also possible to receive live shortwave broadcasts. Through these, students can learn about American culture, music, current events, etc.

**Experienced-based activities.** It is important to provide Japanese students with experience in the target culture, because experience allows them to utilize their knowledge of American culture. They have to communicate in intercultural settings and encounter new cultural environments. Therefore, role playing, mini-dramas, and actual experiences, such as cooking food from the target culture, are very significant for Japanese students. Such techniques give students confidence for future real encounters with the new cultural environments.

**Individualization.** Students of English, particularly in intermediate and advanced levels of instruction, have different goals, interests, and needs in learning English and the same is true in learning American culture. The levels of ability can vary a great deal in a class. Moreover, since class periods are limited, it is not possible to teach all aspects of American culture thoroughly. It is, thus, both important and necessary to individualize instruction.

There are a number of ways to individualize English classes. One is through individual or group research projects. Individual students or groups can choose or be assigned a topic on which to submit a written report and/or do a presentation. Group projects have advantages over individual ones in that a large class makes it hard for the teacher to assist and observe each student. The group members share the work, discuss their findings, and write the report together. Oral presentations are more feasible with group projects than with individual ones. The group format also allows students to work on mini-dramas, games, and other experience-based activities.

The widespread use of computers has made individualization more feasible in some cases. Using computer-assisted instruction, teachers can make a wide variety of materials available to students. These materials can vary according to topic are and level of difficulty, so that students can choose the topic areas that interest them most or are related to their goals and the levels of difficulty that are most appropriate for them. Students can use these materials at their own pace.

### Improving Teaching of American Culture in English Instruction

As has already been pointed out, little American culture is taught in English instruction at present. Many changes must be made to teach American culture effectively. In particular, there needs to be improvement in teaching materials, audio-visual aids, teachers, evaluation, and study-abroad programs.

**Teaching materials.** Most English textbooks in junior and senior high schools do not include information about English-speaking cultures. They do not contain many topics related to the United States, American people and their life, including Culture with a big C; materials conveying American cultural information; or visual materials that depict American culture. English language textbooks should include more information on American culture.

English textbooks should also include more dialogues and activities in which students can take part, such as games, projects, skits, and role-playing activities, and should provide actual cultural experiences. There should be some guidelines for cultural information for research and discussions. Practical information should be included in main texts and also in appendices, such as conversion tables of measurements, air fares among major cities, denominations of currency, maps of major cities, etc.

New teaching materials should be designed for more flexibility in meeting individual students' interests, needs, and goals, i.e., for individualized instruction, including materials for computer-assisted instruction. In addition to the textbooks themselves, other materials should be developed to supplement textbooks. Such materials as "cultural assimilators" (Fiedler, Mitchell and Triandis, 1971), "culture capsules" (Taylor and Sorensen, 1961), "culture clusters" (Meade and Morain, 1973), and "critical incidents" (Brislin, Cushner, Cherrie, and Yong, 1986) are examples of other materials for teaching culture.

**Audio-visual aids.** Visual materials like maps, posters, pictures, photos, magazines, videotapes, and realia should be provided in the classrooms to add to the cultural environment, to motivate students, and to provide visual information to support verbal information. Many schools already have such materials, and teachers can also borrow them from American centers or order them through catalogs.

**Teachers.** Most English teachers do not have any training in the area of teaching culture, and most of them have not been to English-speaking countries. Thus, it is necessary to provide them with further training — courses related to teaching culture should be included in teacher education programs — and opportunities to go overseas. However, there are now no widespread programs that allow junior high and high school teachers to go overseas to study and experience English-speaking cultures. If teachers could go overseas, they could collect teaching materials, including visual aids, as well as experience the culture firsthand.

It is often difficult for teachers to find the exact cultural materials that they want. Bibliographies are necessary to let teachers know cultural information is available and where to find it.

**Evaluation.** At present, English tests in Japan do not include items on culture. Thus, students trying to get higher grades are encouraged to ignore culture. University entrance examinations in English do not contain questions about English-speaking cultures either, so students are not motivated to learn about culture. If culture is to be taken seriously as a subject of study, cultural understanding must definitely be evaluated.

**Study-abroad programs.** Visiting a country where the target language is spoken is the best way to learn its culture. Nothing takes the place of actual experience in another culture. American educators believe in the value of study abroad, and in the 1970's in particular they paid a great deal of attention to the quality of overseas programs (Bourque, 1974). Hoeh and Spack (1975) have reported that high school students who participated in a short-term but intensive travel/study program made considerable progress in French and in attitudinal changes toward the French people. Wallach (1973) reported that students of the University of Wisconsin who participated in an orientation and study-abroad program had an increased motivation to learn foreign languages on their return.

There are many study-abroad programs available to American students (Garatty, Klemperer and Taylor, 1974). These programs are for high school, undergraduate and graduate students, and teachers, and are sponsored by institutions and nonprofit organizations such as the Experiment in International Living and the Council on International Educational Exchange. These programs are organized under certain guidelines. They are accredited, and participants can obtain a certain number of academic credits.

In Japan, there are both commercial programs and programs developed by universities. There has been relatively little study of the effects of overseas programs (Yashima and Viswat, 1991). Higuchi, Saito, Lamarche, Shelangouski, and Kikuchi (1982) and Yashima and Viswat (1991) looked at students who studied for one year in Canada and the U.S. respectively, and found that the students' image was somewhat less positive at the end of their stay than it had been in the beginning but was still mainly positive. Nozaki (1987) and Kitao (1993) studied students who were in the U.S. for five weeks in programs that involved language study and study of American culture. Both found that the students' images of the U.S. became more positive. Kitao also found that the students reported that their English ability had improved and that the students had gained more confidence in themselves and had more motivation to study English.

There are no overall guidelines in Japan for study-abroad programs, and their quality is not guaranteed. Even nonprofit programs are not accredited. It would be useful to establish guidelines for such programs and to accredit them. Then students would be better able to know which programs were of good quality and would be able to participate in them. Teachers' programs should also be organized under certain guidelines, perhaps based on the guidelines used in the United States.

In summary, the writer proposes the following changes to improve the teaching of American culture effectively as part of English instruction:

1. Teaching materials, particularly textbooks, have to be changed. They must include more cultural information and visual materials related to English-speaking cultures. More audio-visual aids should be used.
2. Teachers ought to be taught how to teach about English-speaking cultures, both through teacher education courses in Japan and experiences abroad.

3. Students' understanding of English-speaking cultures ought to be evaluated in class, as part of English examinations, and college entrance exams.
4. Good accredited study-abroad programs should be established.

## Orientation Programs for Japanese Going Overseas

### Necessity of Orientation Programs

Orientation programs can be divided into two main types: predeparture programs and initial orientations in a target country. The latter may accompany ongoing orientation that lasts for a semester or a year and conclude with reentry orientation, which is held just before students return to their home countries.

A good predeparture orientation program is important to a good experience studying abroad. Unfortunately, they have not always been well planned and executed. In the 1960s, many American students entered foreign countries poorly prepared (Bourque, 1974). Since the importance of orientation before study abroad programs has been more widely recognized, orientations have been expanded and improved (Grove, 1989). Grove emphasized that studying overseas is "potentially one of the most broadening and maturing educational experiences that a young person can have" but that "merely sending young people to live abroad for a while does not guarantee that they will learn a great deal more than if they remained at home" (p. xi).

The foreign language teaching profession recognizes the necessity and the importance of orientations for studying abroad, and many foreign language educators feel that students should be better prepared culturally and linguistically before they go to study abroad (Bourque, 1974). According to *Windows on the World* (1973), participants in the fifth Sandanona Seminar, sponsored by Experiment in International Living, reported that both experts and amateurs in the field of study abroad felt that the touchstone of success was orientation.

> . . .a predeparture orientation/language period is more effective than a sudden and total immersion in a foreign culture, particularly for those students who are undertaking their first foreign experience or who are bound for "different" culture (Bourque, 1974: 341).

Orientations reduce the problems students have with living and studying in a foreign country. A study of Maryland students indicated that they had few difficulties with character conflicts, culture shock, and cross-cultural misunderstandings because of their full-year orientation program (Bourque, 1974). Wallach (1973) reported that the University of Wisconsin-Green Bay extended the concept of orientation and introduced a program that combined one semester of preparation for cross-cultural experience and a subsequent semester of actual experience. This program provided a strong motivating force for language study.

Wallach (1973) found great improvement in the language proficiency of participants in a three-week intensive program conducted by the Peace Corps and the Experiment in International Living in 1971. At present the significance of predeparture orientation is recognized, and almost all American study-abroad programs provide predeparture orientation that involves professional people.

The importance of initial orientation programs has also been recognized. The National Association for Foreign Student Affairs (NAFSA) published *Guidelines: Initial Orientation of Foreign Students in 1964* (NAFSA, 1964). It proposed a seven-day initial orientation program to consist of five parts:

1. immediate campus orientation (information about the orientation program itself and about the campus, regulations, etc.)
2. academic community orientation (college systems and education)

3. academic orientation (contents of education such as classes, examinations, etc.)
4. extracurricular orientation (organizations and social activities)
5. nonacademic orientation (climate, food, finance, vacationing, other practical information)

Most American institutions follow NAFSA's guidelines and hold initial orientation programs for foreign students; however, most of their programs deal only with academic affairs; nonacademic orientation is largely ignored. For example, the University of Kansas' five-day program for newly arrived foreign students in August, 1976, handled English and health examinations, campus information, social activities and academic affairs, including library tours. It also provided some regulations for foreign students and a few lectures on education in the United States (*Orientation for New International Students*, 1976). It included little nonacademic orientation related to such areas as banks, living places, food, traveling, etc.

Initial orientation programs for incoming Fulbright scholars last three to six weeks. These orientations consist mainly of English instruction, immediate campus, academic community, academic (how to do research and lectures in students' own fields), and extracurricular orientations, and lectures on Culture with a big C (art, music, literature, etc.), as opposed to culture with a small c, which involves patterns of daily life [Allen and Valette, 1972]). They also provided many extracurricular activities like taking field trips and visiting American homes besides those on campus. Thus, students were supposed to learn culture with a small c (nonacademic) through experiences. Only the program in Hawaii recognized the necessity of a cultural orientation including practical information (Orientation Center, University of Hawaii, 1974; Orientation Center for Foreign Students, The University of Kansas, 1974; Office of International Services, Indiana University, 1974; and International Office, The University of Texas at Austin, 1974).

## Orientation in Japan

The quality of predeparture orientations in Japan varies widely, but some programs do not offer effective predeparture orientation. NAFSA pointed out that one of the two major reasons for provision of initial orientation was that predeparture orientation is not always available overseas (NAFSA, 1964). Most of the Japanese students in the United States go by themselves and do not receive any predeparture orientation.

Predeparture orientation is more important than initial orientation (NAFSA, 1964). The International Cultural Exchange provides predeparture rather than initial orientation. The greater importance of the former type is also recognized by many nonprofessionals who work in study-abroad programs. Some commercial programs provide predeparture orientation. Nonprofit organizations provide predeparture orientation at times before their programs start. The orientation usually includes information about the orientation and its programs, life in the United States, medical information, things to bring, finance, manners, a little practical information, and lectures by experienced people on life in the United States. Such orientations usually run for one day and sometimes two or three. They seldom have time to cover much American culture (Takeda, 1973).

Such orientation programs in Japan are usually offered by nonprofessionals who have been to the target country. The programs provided a brief look at the United States and its people through slides and lectures. The writer could not find any guidelines for such orientation programs. The programs are entirely dependent on individual organizations, and so their quality varies. Because many of those who go to the United States have not had good orientations, they encounter many cultural problems.

## Improving Orientation in Japan

Six changes which would improve predeparture orientations are (1) clear guidelines, (2) long-term orientation programs, (3) practical

English instruction, (4) cultural orientation, (5) specialized orientation, and (6) good materials for orientation.

**Clear guidelines.** Since so many Japanese people are going abroad, there is an immediate need for guidelines that clearly outline what is necessary as part of the orientation to the countries they will visit, their people, and their cultures, including practical information. These guidelines should be made by experienced people, including teachers of the target language and culture, and published for the nonprofessionals who work for study-abroad programs.

**Long-term orientations.** Long-term orientation is necessary to cover aspects of culture and daily life in the target country, particularly for people who are going to stay there for a long period. It also allows for practical language instruction that would make the students more communicatively competent. More time would add to the cultural and linguistic benefits offered.

Since so many students go abroad and orientation programs motivate students to learn foreign languages, such courses should be adopted in English instruction in high schools and particularly in colleges. Perhaps it would be a good idea for colleges to provide courses on "Traveling in the United States" or "American Culture" for orientation purposes. However, if they do, they should not separate them from the English language because culture should be taught with language. It is part of language instruction.

**Practical English instruction.** The biggest single problem Japanese people encounter when they arrive in the United States is the language itself. This contributes to psychological problems and cultural shock. Thus, it is important to train people to make themselves understood in English in the situations they are likely to encounter in the United States. If they can deal with routine situations, such as asking for information or making requests, they can pay more attention to other things and have fewer problems.

**Cultural orientation (nonacademic orientation).** Most Japanese people do not know much about daily life in the United States, and practical information (culture with a small c) should be an important component of the orientation. Most students had a great deal of difficulty with many items concerning culture with a small c. Those items are very important for living in the United States and should be covered in the orientation.

Then students could adjust themselves in the United States much better and save a great deal of money, time, and effort.

**Specialized orientation.** People go to the United States for a variety of reasons, including studying a particular field, working for a company, and improving their English. However, they do not necessarily know much about their own fields of study or interests in the United States. Many incoming Japanese students in the United States know very little about American education. Some systems are quite different than those in Japan. Thus, people who are going overseas need at least a general knowledge of their fields or of the type of situations they will encounter in their work. It may not be easy to provide such orientation for special fields, but at least these should be orientations for the major fields such as education and business.

**Good materials.** Some study-abroad programs make materials for their own programs. However, it is not easy to make good materials. There are some books on study abroad, but none of them systematically shows the parts of American culture that Japanese visitors should know. An orientation handbook for the United States should be developed. Materials are a very important part of orientation.

## Conclusion

Predeparture orientation was not offered to American students going overseas in the 1960's, and the students had a great many problems in foreign countries. Then foreign language teachers began to pay increasing attention to the necessity and importance of orientations. When they were provided, students had fewer problems in foreign countries and greatly increased their language proficiency and motivation to learn foreign languages. Thus, almost all study-abroad programs have predeparture orientation now in the United States.

Initial orientation is provided by most American institutions following the guidelines established by NAFSA. They usually emphasize academic affairs and ignore nonacademic orientation.

The quality of the predeparture orientations in Japan varies greatly. Some programs do provide orientations but omit many aspects of daily life in the United States and important practical information. Students receive little nonacademic orientation upon arrival in the United States. Therefore, they naturally encounter cultural problems.

To improve orientation in Japan, the writer proposes that clear guidelines for orientation be set, long-term orientation programs be established, English instruction be given, cultural and specialized orientation be provided, and effective materials for orientation be published.

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## Note

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# 15. Development of Thought about Teaching Culture in Japan in the 1960s and Early 1970s[1]

Kenji Kitao

## Abstract

There was not much interest in teaching culture in English courses in Japan until the early 1960s. Though it was recognized that there was a relationship between language and culture, some educators felt that through learning language, students learned about culture. It was not until the late 1960s and early 1970s that interest developed in teaching culture itself as part of language education.

In this paper, I have surveyed the development of teaching culture to Japanese students in language classes, reviewing studies done in the early 1970s about what to teach and how to teach it.

## Review of Japanese Literature on Teaching Culture

### Historical Background

Teaching the background culture of the English language was almost ignored in Japan until the late 1960's, and teaching a foreign language based on its culture was not emphasized (Kunihiro and Suzuki, 1971). After the end of World War II, teachers began to improve English teaching. Since 1953, practical English has been emphasized (Fukui, 1975). In the 1950's and 1960's the audiolingual method was the focus, with attention concentrated on the four skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

In reviewing the titles of major articles and books about English teaching from 1945 to 1974, I found that there were very few articles and books on teaching about English-speaking cultures in English courses, and none about how to teach culture or what to teach about culture (Torii, Egusa and Sasaki, 1975).

I also looked over all the titles of articles in journals of English teaching and university publications for 1972-1974 and all the articles in *Eigo Kyoiku* [The English Teacher's Magazine] for 1970-1975 and *Gendai Eigo Kyoiku* [Modern English Teaching] for 1974-1975.[2] In these publications there were a few articles on American and British life, manners and etiquette, superstitions, association of the British, American and Japanese people, language teaching and culture, and English and Japanese logic. However, there were few articles on how and what to teach about the target cultures.

Communication became one of the important aims of English teaching in the late 1960's, and because culture strongly affects intercultural communication, the interest in teaching about culture gradually grew. The Communication Department of International Christian University hosted an intercultural communication conference in Tokyo in July, 1972, at the request of the Commission for International and Intercultural communication of the Speech Communication Association. Papers presented there were published in 1974 as Condon and Saito (1974).

Thus, from the 1940s to the late 1960s, culture did not play a major part in the field of teaching English in Japan. Then intercultural communication between the Japanese and the English-speaking people became more frequent and important, and culture began moving into the spotlight in the field of teaching English.

## Reasons for Emphasizing Culture

Although culture was not given much attention by teachers of English, it has not been ignored completely. Japanese secondary education is strongly controlled by the Ministry of Education, which sets up guidelines for teaching. It states the purpose of English education in the junior high schools is to:

> Let students establish the foundations to be able to understand and express foreign languages, be more aware of language and establish foundations for international understanding (Kaya, 1972:5).

To accomplish this purpose, it is broken down into three concrete points, of which the third is:

> Through a foreign language, let students gain basic understanding of foreign people's life and ways of thinking (Kaya, 1972:5).

The guidelines for English classes at senior high schools are very similar. In fact, the purpose of English education in the senior high schools is identical to that in the junior high schools (Monbusho, 1972).

However, this purpose is broken down into two points rather than three, the second being exactly the same as the third one for the junior high schools (Monbusho, 1972).

Many teachers of English agreed with the purpose or the guidelines in principle. One such teacher says:

> When we study or teach foreign languages, the purpose should not be only increasing the proficiency. That is only part of the purpose and what is more important is to know how different the culture, patterns of thinking, behavior, etc., of the people who speak those languages are from ours (Ueno, 1973: 5).

Here, it is important to note the Ministry of Education believes that students learn about foreign cultures through studying foreign languages. Therefore, students learn the background culture of the English-speaking people as a result of learning English. These authorities do not assert that culture itself should be taught or that it would help students to understand foreign languages.

It is not surprising that teachers have such a passive attitude toward teaching culture. Okutsu (1975) stated that by studying and teaching a language, one also studies the society where the language is spoken and the culture there, without being explicitly taught about society and culture.

He stated further that language study revealed not only overt culture but covert culture as well (Okutsu, 1975). Ogata (1974) asserted that one of the two major reasons why English was important as a foreign language was that the Japanese people could understand British, American and Western culture as a whole through a study of the English language.

Not all teachers believed that by learning English, students learned the cultures as well. A few teachers believed that in order to understand foreign languages well, background cultures had to be studied. Ueno (1974) stated:

> In order to understand a foreign language, the first step is to understand the differences between the cultures, that is, the people and their traditions, customs, environments, characteristics, and ways of thinking in the society where that language is spoken (p. 6).

Teaching about the background cultures was emphasized more for the purpose of communication by these teachers. They insisted that it was important for the Japanese people to communicate with the English-speaking people. If Japanese people want to understand English-speakers and make themselves understood through the English language, they must understand native speakers' lifestyles, ways of thinking and value systems. For many Japanese students at American institutions, the second major problem preventing good communication with Americans was that they did not know enough about American culture and the American people (Kitao, 1976).

This is one of the major reasons why the Japanese people have difficulty communicating well with English-speaking people. Shimaoka (1975) discussed the major reasons Japanese have difficulty communicating with English-speakers and proposed ways in which this problem could be solved. His fourth proposal was that Japanese studying English should learn to understand the English-speaking people and recognize similarities and differences between Japanese people and English-speaking people.

Knowledge of the differences in background cultures is essential for intercultural communication. Nishiyama, Nakamura, and Endo (1976) stated that "we have to know each other's cultural backgrounds in order to reduce misunderstanding and to understand each other best" (p. 5). They also asserted that students could not communicate with English-speaking people unless they are taught to pay attention to the behaviors and life styles in the foreign culture in the process of teaching that foreign language.

Can some aspects of intercultural communication occur regardless of the differences of background cultures? Higa (1975) explained that people could communicate with factual statements without knowing the background culture but not with relational utterances. However, even the factual statement, "Tom is five feet nine inches tall," has some cultural meanings. An American would know that Tom is a nickname for Thomas and would realize that Tom is about average height for an adult male. On the other hand, Japanese speakers would understand how tall Tom is if they converted feet and inches to the metric system, but they would think he was very tall. Therefore, except in very specialized fields, all communications are related to the background culture.

If knowledge of culture is essential in order to communicate with people of other languages, culture should be taught in school, too. Koshino (1975) had progressive ideas. He believed that "understanding a language is understanding culture and people" (p. 31) and he insisted that colleges should adopt a course on the English-speaking people and their culture in order to improve the curricula for students who will be teachers of English. Many teachers of English have not visited the countries where English is spoken.[3] They have never learned about the culture in part because they have never been required to do so.

Although teaching about culture is a necessity in foreign language instruction to help students communicate with speakers of that language, it can also be important for its by-products. Some other teachers emphasized these by-products of teaching about culture.

Tazaki (1975) pointed out that some students' English proficiency was low and pattern practice was almost meaningless to them. However, if a teacher pointed out differences between the American and Japanese cultures, the lessons were more meaningful and educational to those students.

Teaching of culture motivates students to study English (Nishiyama, Nakamura and Endo, 1976). Visiting a foreign country surely makes students eager to learn a foreign language. Likewise, it is important to create a similarly stimulating atmosphere in the classroom. Miura (1975) suggested making a library of maps, pamphlets, posters, slides, movies, records, etc., concerned with the English-speaking nations.

Matsukawa (1974) employed 70 to 80 percent of the class time for linguistic drills and the rest of the time for imparting cultural information so that his students understood the text well. He found the students tended to remember cultural comments well but forget linguistic knowledge and performance.

Many teachers recognized that they should teach culture in English class, but only a few teachers did it, and even then with a very passive approach. Miyake (1976) stated that "now is the time to practice teaching background culture" (p. 61), and he emphasized that it required little money and effort and had no disadvantages.

In summary, even if culture was not emphasized in teaching English through the end of the 1960s, it at least was a part, as indicated by the guidelines of the Ministry of Education, and many teachers agreed with the concept in theory. However, many teachers seemed to have the idea that culture was learned automatically through studying a foreign language. Teachers did not, in practice, emphasize culture in language instruction. Those who emphasized using the target language as a means of communication, however, believed that the Japanese had to understand American culture in order to understand the American people and express themselves well to them. Culture was emphasized more and more in the 1970s.

In the late 1960s and early 1970s, more and more Japanese people went to the United States and had difficulties due, in part, to cultural differences. Since intercultural communication between the United States and Japan was becoming more important and commonplace, more teachers and researchers came to recognize that the background culture of the American people should be taught effectively. However, there were few books or articles about what to teach about American culture and how to teach it. In the next section, I will look at some of the studies on the teaching of American culture that were done in the early 1970s.

## Previous Studies on Teaching American Culture to the Japanese People

I could not find any studies published in Japan on what to teach about American culture and how to teach it to the Japanese students in an English class. However, a few studies were done in the United States and abroad in the early 1970's.

### Yamazaki's and Taba's Studies

Two studies by graduate students at the University of Kansas, Kayoko Yamazaki and Sae Taba, were about teaching American culture along with the audio-lingual method in Japanese secondary schools.

In her study, Yamazaki (1972) stated that teaching culture is a useful way to improve English teaching in Japan. She used the approach of teaching the target culture in foreign language classes in general. She believed that the audio-lingual method offered the best way to improve the present approach to teaching English in Japan, and so she combined the teaching of culture with the audio-lingual method.

Her procedure for teaching culture to seventh grade students was as follows:

1. Explanation of cultural situation
2. Dialogues
3. Pattern Drills
4. Answer and question session (sic)
5. Intensive pattern drills
6. Activities
7. Testing

"Activities" here refered to things that students can do, such as taking part in conversations and games.

She presented three units of model lessons: "The Family," "The Food," and "American Folk Heroes." She also suggested a number of other topics related to American culture, such as industry, climate, clothing, housing, market place, social structure, association, sexual rules, ecology, transportation, gestures, etiquette, school, calendar, and ceremony.

In teaching American culture with the audio-lingual method, she suggested using audiovisual aids, objects, pictures, movies, slides, tapes and records, and the language laboratory as well as individualizing the class.

Taba's (1972) study was similar to Yamazaki's. In her study, she provided some sample materials in which instruction in the target culture was molded into the practice of language skills through the audio-lingual method.

In addition to Yamazaki's (1972) concerns, she emphasized the relationship between culture and language and explained how Japanese and American cultures are reflected in their languages.

Taba's (1972) assertion was that "culture is an inevitable factor in language teaching" (p. 10).

In her method of teaching culture, she used dialogues, music, pictorial materials, and readings to teach culture. The main text consisted of dialogues and readings together with some drills and grammar study. Each unit had one topic with one dialogue and one reading. The reading was an explanation of culture between 150 and 200 words long. The teacher could avoid having to give much explanation in his/her native language.

The lesson procedure was as follows:

1. Dialogue presentation
2. Dialogue memorization
3. Simple-slot substitution drill
4. Grammar study
5. Extensive pattern practice
6. Reading

She presented five topics for sample lessons: time, the family, the neighborhood, the street, and youth.

The two studies are similar, even though they are based on different basic philosophies of teaching American culture to the Japanese students in English class. Yamazaki's basic premise was that teaching American culture is a useful way to improve English teaching in Japan and Taba's was that language cannot be separated from its culture and culture is an inevitable factor in language teaching. Both studies are valid, useful, and practical. They can be adopted in Japanese high schools. However, their weaknesses were that no reasons were given for the particular choice of topics related to American culture, and not all of the topics chosen were necessarily sources of difficulty for Japanese people in understanding the United States and her people. Also, not enough information was given on how to teach American culture. While the procedures were explained in detail in both studies, not many techniques are introduced, except the use of audiovisual aids.

## Bontrager's Study

Bontrager (1973) did a study on what to teach the Japanese about American culture, in which he investigated difficulties experienced by the Japanese. He used Doty and Ross (1960) as a basis to teach English to Japanese students. The textbook includes chapters on manners, social relations, geography, people, history, sports, the American attitude toward manual labor, the American conception of a hero, the role of women, the educational system, religion, and politics. Those topics cover much of American culture. However, since that book was not written for Japanese students specifically, it omits important parts of American culture that are difficult for Japanese to understand.

Bontrager made the supplementary materials especially for the Japanese people. What he added was gift-giving, American hospitality, table manners, working and studying, the Jews, and the American attitude toward religion. Since women's positions have changed, "The Role of Women in American Life" was rewritten. He used three Japanese informants to help him to determine the validity of his work, and which parts should be revised.

One of the weakest points in this study is that there were only three informants and decisions were made subjectively.

## The Okadas' Study

Okada and Okada (1973) prepared a guide for Japanese businessmen, based on surveys and interviews. The introduction of their book shows the purpose of this study clearly:

> The Japanese people are a study in extreme politeness and are known for their etiquette and good form. Unfortunately etiquette and form are different in other parts of the world, and the Japanese businessman traveling abroad will find himself in a completely alien environment. His greatest problem will be language. Language cannot be perfected quickly but good manners can. . . .

> This book is written for the express purpose of supplying the Japanese businessmen with such a guideline. The contents of this book were decided upon and created after expensive research and many years of experience in dealing with Japanese nationals abroad (p. iv).

This book explains manners in New York, London, Paris, Rome, and Buenos Aires. The subjects dealt with in the book are business and social etiquette, eating and drinking manners, and other necessary information for the Japanese businessman. It clearly points out the problems that many Japanese businessmen encounter abroad and shows the solutions. It covers many basic problems.

This book is very practical for Japanese who are about to go abroad, especially on business. It is a convenient source of knowledge about culture, but it is not designed for language teaching and the range in culture of this study is much narrower than Bontrager's. Moreover, the authors do not specify what kind of research was done.

## Summary

The two studies done by Yamazaki and Taba are useful and significant, but they are not based on research. Some of the topics they chose may not be difficult for Japanese people. Bontrager, in contrast, did interviews with Japanese students, but since his sample was small — only three were interviewed — his results are called into question. The Okadas' material does not show what research was done or how it was done, so there is no way of evaluating it. It has a narrow scope and so is of limited use to Japanese who are not in business.

Thus while the interest in teaching about English-speaking cultures in English courses in Japan grew through the mid-1970s, there was little in the way of information about what should be taught in language courses or how it should be taught.

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## Notes

[1] This paper was revised from the writer's doctoral dissertation, "The Teaching of American Culture in English Courses in Japan," submitted to the School of Education and to the Faculty of the Graduate School of the University of Kansas, 1976.

[2] Torii, Egusa, & Sasaki (1975) is a bibliography which contains papers on English teaching published in journals, university publications and books.

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# 16. Developing Reading Materials for Teaching American Culture in English Courses

Kenji Kitao

## Abstract

Knowing about other cultures improves the effectiveness of communication with people from that culture, because culture influences communication in a wide variety of ways. However, studies indicate that students do not learn much about American culture in English courses in Japan. Therefore, because of its importance for communication and because it gives other benefits, including motivating students, making language come alive, and helping students understand their own culture better, teachers may want to make their own materials to teach culture, either as supplements for the teaching materials they already use or as the main teaching materials in a course.

In this paper, based on my experience in developing materials, I have described some of the characteristics that help make materials effective, including using definitions in English rather than translations into Japanese, providing visual aids, using realia, and using experience-based activities and role playing. I have also reported on the feedback I have gotten from students using this type of material, based on questionnaires.

## Introduction

The purpose of language is communication. Full communication cannot be accomplished without understanding the cultural background of the language, even if the language is manipulated well.

Knowing other cultures and experiencing them improves communication with the people of those cultures. Culture affects communication indirectly through association. When people of the same culture communicate, they are able to communicate accurately and with relatively few words because of their shared associations. However, people of different cultures may not have shared associations (and may not even realize that they do not) and so may have difficulty communicating. Culture limits the content of communication. Culture determines levels of communication, that is, how much speakers reveal of themselves. The ways of communication vary according to cultures. Culture also relates to other means of communication, such as physical contact, time, place, human relations and sex, and therefore, communicating with people of different cultural backgrounds effectively without knowing their covert communication systems is very difficult. Moreover, the Japanese have a disadvantage in intercultural communication because they are relatively homogeneous in terms of race, culture and language. Although with compatriots they can communicate well even in silence, they are not used to intercultural communication and do not distinguish it from their own (Kitao, 1979a).

Since economic, academic and cultural relations with the United States are increasing, the cultural aspects of the English language are becoming more and more important to Japan. As Japanese people encounter American people, information, and culture more frequently than ever before, more misunderstanding and miscommunication occur.

## Previous Studies

In the English teaching profession in Japan, American culture has been emphasized recently because of the stress on communication. However, it is taught neither extensively nor well. There are not many studies to show how culture is important and how well it is taught in English classes. My colleagues and I have not found any guidelines for developing reading materials for teaching American culture in Japan.

I conducted four studies using surveys, examination of English textbooks, a test, and interviews in order to find out how well Japanese people do understand American culture and how well they are taught about American culture in English courses.

I administered a survey to forty Japanese students at the University of Kansas. The results showed that there is an inadequate foundation for good understanding and communication between the Americans and Japanese. The Japanese students had been taught very little about American culture in English courses of any level, so their understanding of American culture was quite limited. As a result they had some problems understanding Americans and communicating with them. This study indicated that American culture, particularly culture with a small "c," should be emphasized more in English courses at all levels (Kitao, 1978).

A similar survey was given to thirty-one Japanese high school students in the United States. The results showed that little about American culture is taught in English classes in Japan, and this prevents Japanese from communicating satisfactorily with Americans (Kitao, 1980).

I reviewed some articles on culture in junior and senior high school textbooks and analyzed some high school textbooks myself. The results showed that textbooks are linguistically oriented and not culturally oriented. Most of the textbooks do not have any units to describe the United States and its people or culture directly. They contain only a little about American culture in just a few units. They lack some important items of American culture. Even the little cultural information that is given is not always described accurately. As a result, junior and senior high school textbooks contain little about Culture with a big "C," culture with a small "c," practical information, or the covert culture of American people and, thus, they do not present American culture well (Kitao, 1979b).

I administered the Test of American Culture, which has 100 multiple choice questions, to 200 Japanese students, of whom 40 were in the United States. The results showed that Japanese students understand American cultural items much less than Americans do. The ten most difficult areas of American culture included such areas as newspapers, TV and movies, time, transportation, economy, postage, telephone, table settings, magazines, and religion. Generally, covert culture was most difficult to understand, followed by culture with a small "c," and practical information for living or traveling in the United States. The easiest to understand was Culture with a capital "C" (Kitao, 1992c).

Following up the Test of American Culture, I interviewed twenty newly arrived Japanese at the University of Kansas. The results showed that they were seriously lacking in practical information. This type of trouble is due to the differences in the social systems of Japan and the United States. They did know much about American social customs, the levels of formality, and American value systems (Kitao, 1977).

In conclusion, the results of the four studies show that the Japanese students had been taught very little about American culture in English courses of any level and they did not understand American culture well. As a result, they had problems understanding Americans and communicating with them.

## Benefits of Teaching Culture

Besides contributing to understanding language, intercultural communication, and international understanding, teaching culture has some by-products that are very beneficial in foreign-language instruction. The following are some of the by-products.

1. The teaching of culture gives students a reason to study the lan-

guage. An understanding of culture makes language study more meaningful. Many students take foreign language courses because they are required. They do not know why they are studying foreign languages. Culture study can supply a reason.

2. The teaching of culture makes language more alive and makes things more real. It helps students to relate the abstract sounds and forms of a foreign language to real people and places. It helps students understand the language better.
3. The teaching of culture increases student curiosity and interest. Students like to learn about other cultures and do culturally based activities, such as singing, dancing, role playing, mini-drama, doing research on target countries, people and cultures, and so forth.
4. The first three benefits strongly motivate students to go on to further language study. This type of motivation has proved very strong. The teaching of culture is also useful for quick motivation when students are listless in the classroom.
5. The teaching of culture helps students understand not only other cultures but also their own cultures better.
6. The teaching of culture gives students positive attitudes toward people of a different language and culture.
7. The teaching of culture contributes to an all-round education.

## College Reading Materials Research Project[1]

My colleagues and I started to develop English reading texts for Japanese college students with a Japan Association of Language Teachers (JALT) research grant in December, 1979, and continued with another JALT research grant in November, 1980. Our goals were to develop materials that would 1) give students information about the United States, 2) interest students in reading English, 3) help students improve their reading skills, and 4) expose students to a variety of literary forms.

At first, we met once or twice a month to discuss what constitutes good reading materials, what we should teach about American culture, what students are interested in, what their problems in reading English are, how fast they are able to read, their current English proficiency and so on. We did research on some of these areas. We then wrote and collected reading materials and made exercises for them. We printed the first experimental text, *An American Sampler*, in March, 1981, and we used it with almost 1,000 students for one academic year. With the second JALT research grant, we revised it, added new materials, and printed three volumes the following March. Seventeen hundred students used our revised experimental texts, *An American Sampler*, Vols. 1, 2, and 3. In addition to the three volumes, we made supplementary selections, achievement tests, and two reading proficiency tests.

## Selecting Reading Materials

Based on our previous studies and experiences, we chose about fifty important and/or interesting areas of culture or life in the United States. They are shown in Appendix A.

We wrote and selected materials and also called for contributions through journals and magazines in Japan and abroad. Collecting materials is very important, because the materials convey cultural information well, and we teach most of the cultural information through the main text. Since classes meet about 35 hours (less than 24 classes) a year, teachers do not have much time to explain culture in class other than discussing what is in the textbook.

Teachers can use selections which explain some cultural information directly. This is a very easy way to teach culture, but because students are used to reading explanations, we used selections in various literary forms, such as dialogues, directions, newspaper articles, poems, a letter and a movie scenario, as shown in Appendix B. Students enjoyed these forms very much. We are hoping that students will learn cultural information indirectly as well as directly.

We have included many pieces of realia, such as recipes, advertisements, brochures, menus, and a wedding program, as shown in Appendix C. Almost none of our students had seen this kind of realia, so at first they had some problems understanding them, but they liked them very much.

In choosing reading materials, we considered students' interests, their needs, meaningfulness to the students, whether the material contained new cultural information, difficulty, bias, and whether material was written in standard English.

In determining difficulty levels of our reading materials, we used our teaching experiences, feedback from our students, difficulty of vocabulary, length of reading passages, and complexity of sentences. Most selections have between 200 and 1,000 words and more than half of them, between 200 and 600 words, so that students can read a passage at least three times in class. We tried to limit new words to less than five percent of the total number of words. We rewrote very long, complicated sentences into easier sentences

The arrangement of reading materials in the textbooks is, generally speaking, from easy to difficult and from concrete to abstract. We tried not to have very similar readings in the same volume, and to put a variety of literary forms in each volume.

## Ideas for Teaching Culture

Since Japanese students have a tendency to translate English passages into Japanese and then understand them, we put definitions for difficult expressions and words. We used a 4,800 word list for Japanese junior and senior high school students. We also defined any expressions based heavily on culture. Most Japanese students think that reading English is finding a Japanese equivalent for each English word. Thus their major strategy in reading is consulting an English-Japanese dictionary, and they never read the original passage through. They finish the passage before they reach the stage of appreciating the cultural information in it.

Besides having students read each passage at least three times in the class, we designed our text to have students do work related to the passage with the exercises as shown in Appendix D and get more cultural meaning from it. The following are some of the features in *An American Sampler* that we think are important in teaching culture.

"Seeing is believing." Visual aids are important and helpful in teaching culture. Photos, maps, illustrations, drawings, realia, forms, and even outlines are very useful. Students have to visualize concepts from the reading passages. Therefore, we have included as many visual aids as possible. In the three volumes, we included 41 photos, 12 maps, 11 drawings, 1 application form, and 14 other types of visual aids.

These visual aids helped students understand the main text better. Photos, realia, and maps in particular made reading selections more real to students, and made them feel that those readings were more closely related to them.

We included a wedding program, a wedding invitation and some photos of a wedding ceremony. For college students, weddings are very interesting, and such realia and photos made the reading selection more real, so students had more accurate ideas of an American wedding.

In addition to these, we put in some visualization exercises, which require students to find things on maps or in drawings or to draw pictures or fill out forms. We also included outline and chart exercises, in which students arrange information. Students like such activities and these kinds of exercises keep students more active in the class. They can also find out by themselves how well they understand the reading passage. These activities reinforce cultural information in the reading passage.

Students liked experience-based activities. They particularly liked

"Favorite Pancakes." During summer vacation, I assigned students to make pancakes at home using this recipe and to write a report on their experience. It was very easy for students to find out whether they had understood the instructions correctly. If their pancakes turned out good, they had understood, and if not, they had made a mistake.

The students wrote reports and many of them mentioned that this was the most interesting experience they had ever had in learning English. The classroom situation is entirely different from the real world. For most students, reading English did not make much sense. If they misunderstood, they were probably told by their teachers they were wrong, or they got lower grades on exams. That was all. However when they do activities, if they misunderstand, they get bad results. This is very real to students. Students enjoyed the menus and advertisements for apartments. They had to understand before they could order or decide which apartment to rent.

Role playing is also useful. There are dialogues, interviews and skits in the books. Students enjoy role playing. They also learn to understand feelings and express them. Most students have never learned that language is alive. For them, it is just a series of words. If they pay more attention to dialogues, they learn different ways of expressing themselves, different ways of communication. Also, dialogues usually contain much cultural information.

Some songs are included and students can learn to sing songs. This is more interesting than memorizing passages.

Measurement using the system used in the United States is a serious problem for Japanese students because that system is quite different from the metric system. We included some conversion exercises.

We also included some culture exercises. These can be used for individual research or group research. Students go to the library and find information on certain cultural items or compare and contrast certain aspects of the United States and Japan. They bring reports back to the class. We sometimes had discussions on them.

In order to avoid passive reading, we included discussion or writing exercises at the end of some selections, so that the students would have an opportunity to express themselves. They cannot do this without understanding the main texts. This helps them with value clarification or discussing cultural differences.

At the beginning of *An American Sampler*, we recommended that students do the following in order to learn American culture and improve their reading in English.

1. Open your mind to a different culture and way of life.
2. Try to be aware of the differences in literary forms and personal writing styles.
3. Use the visual aids to help you understand what you are reading about.
4. Try to read without translation.
5. Try to use an English-English dictionary.
6. Use the exercises to help you understand the main text.
7. Time yourself whenever you read a selection, and keep a record of your reading speed.
8. Do further study on American culture and culture exercises by yourself.
9. Do as much additional reading in English as possible in order to further improve your reading ability.

## Feedback from Students and Teachers

We gave a questionnaire to 281 students at the end of the course. One hundred sixty-four students thought that the content of *An American Sampler* was interesting. Two hundred thirty-five students mentioned that the content was unfamiliar to them, and thirty-six, said that half of the content was unfamiliar. Ninety-one students said that reading English became interesting because of this text. Two hundred twenty-eight students thought that *An American Sam-*

*pler* was different from other college readers. One hundred eighty-six students mentioned that the content of this text was more interesting than that of other textbooks, and 24 said the opposite. As for the difficulty level of our text, we could not find any characteristic results compared with other college texts. However, students tended to feel that our textbook was a little easier than other college reading textbooks.

Seven teachers used *An American Sampler*. One of them had never been to the United States and told me that he was not interested in the United States. After using our textbook in his class, he traveled in the United States for six weeks last summer. Another teacher went to the United States in March of last year and visited all the places described in *An American Sampler*. Another teacher visited all the restaurants mentioned in "Eating Out," a reading which describes some restaurants in San Francisco. I received favorable feedback from all the teachers who used this textbook. The same teachers are using the second experimental edition in addition to four new teachers. So I am sure that teachers enjoyed using *An American Sampler*.

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## Note

[1] Members of this project are Vincent Broderick, Barbara Fujiwara, Michiko Inoue, Kenji Kitao, S. Kathleen Kitao, Hideo Miyamoto, and Leslie Sackett.

## Appendix A

### Areas of American Culture & Life

geography
history
sports
movies
education
food
events
religion
vacation
leisure
politics
TV
holidays
the family
housing
social welfare
alternative life style
social mobility
social problems
the telephone
shopping
sex roles
time
space
humor
folklore
communication styles
community
activities
nonverbal communication
literature
transportation
superstition
music
ceremonies
customs
measurements
shopping
postage
letters
money
drink
nicknames
meals
forms of address
banking

## Appendix B

### Literary Forms

essays
directions
explanations
dialogues
interviews
newspaper articles
a newspaper column
a letter
poems
fiction
narratives
brochures
guides
examples of spoken language
a biography
a research paper
a movie scenario

## Appendix C

### Realia

recipes
menus
wedding invitation
a wedding program
advertisements
brochures
a page from TV Guide

## Appendix D

### Types of Exercises

skimming exercise
true/false questions
comprehension questions
cloze exercise
chart exercise
organization exercise
outline exercise
reference exercise
correction exercise
visualization exercise
sentence completion exercise
interpretation exercise
summary exercise
conversation questions
writing exercise
discussion questions
culture exercise
vocabulary exercise
further study

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# 17. Administration of Language Laboratories in Colleges

Kenji Kitao

### Abstract

Though language laboratories are widespread, they are not necessarily used effectively. In this paper, I have summarized the results of four major studies of language laboratories and the conclusions drawn from them. The results of these studies indicated that 1) important factors in the effectiveness of a language laboratory include facilities, frequency of use, teachers, materials, and evaluation, 2) audio-active compare facilities are the most effective type, 3) it is more effective to use language laboratories frequently for short periods than to use them infrequently for longer periods, 4) teachers in language laboratories need to be proficient in the target language and be familiar with the oral method and the use of language laboratories, 5) teaching materials designed for language laboratories are necessary, and 6) we need to evaluate students' improvement.

I also discussed how language laboratories are administered, what types of facilities there are, how personnel are used in language laboratories, what facilities are attached to language laboratories, what the responsibilities of the director are, and how language laboratories are used.

## Introduction

I often hear that college language laboratories are ineffective for language teaching (for example, Oyabu, Ikeura, Dusek, and Yoshinaga, 1986). In order to increase effectiveness of language laboratories, I will discuss the administration of language laboratories and how they can be improved, with reference to surveys of American college language laboratories (Stack, 1977; Stern, 1976), those at the University of Kansas where I have studied, and others I have visited in the United States. I will discuss organization, facilities and equipment, work, and ways of using language laboratories.

## Previous Studies of Language Laboratories

Many studies on effectiveness of language laboratories were conducted in the 1960s in the United States (Davison, 1973). I will evaluate the results of four famous studies: the Keating Report (Keating, 1963) and the Pennsylvania Project, which concluded that language laboratories were not effective, and the Lorge study (Lorge, 1964) and the Smith study (Smith, W. F., 1969), which supported the effectiveness of language laboratories. I will point out the factors which determine the effectiveness. I have summarized the results of those four studies in a chart.

---

Keating Report (1963)
Purpose:
1 comparison between using and not using a language laboratory
2 effect of I.Q.
Language: French
Participants: high school students
with a language laboratory N = 3,000
without a language laboratory N = 2,000
Design:
comparison between students with and without language laboratory
4 levels of learning experience
5 levels of I.Q.
Results:
1 first year pronunciation language laboratory > non laboratory

2 2-4 year pronunciation and comprehension
non-laboratory > laboratory
3 higher I.Q. bigger differences than sample as a whole
non-laboratory > laboratory

---

Pennsylvania Project (1968)
Purpose:
1 comparison of teaching methods
2 comparison of types of language laboratories
Languages: French, German
Participants: high school students (9-12 graders) N = 2,170
Design:
comparisons of the following six groups
1 traditional method (without laboratory)
2 oral method (A-A type)
3 oral method (A-A-C type)
4 oral method with grammar (A-A type)
5 oral method with grammar (A-A-C type)
6 oral method (tape recorder)

Language laboratories were used for 25 minutes twice a week, tape recorders were used every day.

Results:
translation/reading, vocabulary, grammar
traditional method > other groups
listening traditional method > other groups
speaking traditional method not equal to other groups
groups 4 & 5 < other groups
reading and writing
French traditional method > other groups
German no significant difference

---

Lorge Study (1969)
Purpose:
comparison of students with and without a language laboratory
Language: French
Participants: high school students
Design:
comparison among the following five groups
1 twenty minutes every day (A-A-C)

2 twenty minutes every day (A-A)
3 forty minutes once a week (A-A-C)
4 forty minutes once a week (A-A)
5 no laboratory

Results:

sight reading
  language laboratory > non laboratory
  A-A-C > A-A   every day > once a week

oral answers to oral questions
  non laboratory > every day laboratory > once a week lab
  (there is no significant difference between non-lab and every day lab)

listening
  language laboratory > non language laboratory
  everyday > once a week   A-A-C > A-A

---

Smith Study (1969)

Purpose:
comparison among types of language laboratories

Languages: French, German, Spanish

Participants: high school students   N = 244

Design:
comparison among four groups
1 non language laboratory
2 electronic classroom
3 A-A type language laboratory
4 A-A-C type language laboratory

Results:

listening   electronic classroom  non laboratory
reading and speaking   A-A-C > other groups
total
  A-A-C, electronic classroom > A-A type language laboratory
  language laboratory > non language laboratory

---

Note:

A-A-C: audio-active compare; laboratories with recorders which students can use to record their own voices

A-A: audio-active laboratories; laboratories in which students can only listen

> greater than; better than   < less than; worse than

### Keating Report

The Keating Report gives the results of a survey of language laboratories at high schools in New York. Except for students with the lowest level of ability in pronunciation, classes not using language laboratories were more effective, and language laboratories were detrimental for students with higher IQ (Keating, 1964). However, there are many criticisms of the results of this study.

1) There was no definition of language laboratories, so the facilities available to students were not necessarily consistent. 2) The form of the class is ignored, so classes might have been conducted differently, may have had different numbers of students, etc., and these differences were not taken into account. 3) Teachers were not well trained for language laboratories. 4) Teaching materials that were used were not adequate for language laboratories. 5) The way students were evaluated was poor.

Considering these five criticisms, it is obvious that there were many problems with the use of language laboratories, and this use was not effective. As Grittner (1964) stated, it was too early to expect the most effective use of the language laboratory at that time.

### Pennsylvania Project

The results of the Pennsylvania Project indicate that classes without language laboratories were more effective for any skill in foreign language teaching than classes with language laboratories. The conclusions of this study were: 1) Language laboratories were not effective in the way they were used in high schools at that time. 2) If language laboratories were used only twice a week, a tape recorder can take their place. 3) Students' recordings were not meaningful except for testing (Smith, P. D., 1969).

The main criticisms of this study were how teachers were assigned to the class, and the contents of teaching materials and tests (Aleamoni and Spencer, 1969; Otto, 1969; Valette, 1969).

## Lorge Study

Lorge (1964) reported that listening and speaking drills were more effective using language laboratories, and the motivation of the students was increased, which was the opposite of the results of the Keating Report.

According to the conclusion of this study, using language laboratories is more effective than not using them, laboratories with recorders which students can use to record their own voices (audio-active compare: A-A-C) are more effective than audio-active laboratories, in which students can only listen to tapes, and using laboratories for a short period every day is more effective than using them for a long period once a week.

## Smith Study

W. F. Smith (1969) recognized the effectiveness of the language laboratories and showed that electronic classrooms (regular classrooms with some equipment installed; see a more complete description below) are less effective than audio-active-compare laboratories but more effective than audio-active laboratories.

## Summary of Four Studies

We can conclude the following from the above four studies:

1) Important factors in determining effectiveness of language laboratories are the facilities, frequency of use, teachers, materials, and evaluation.
2) Among facilities of language laboratories, audio-active-compare is more effective than electronic classrooms, and the latter is more effective than audio-active laboratories.
3) The most effective system is to use language laboratories every day even if only for a short period. It is ineffective to use the language laboratory only a couple of times a week. Frequent use of any kind of facility is more important than using good facilities for effectiveness.

4) Teachers of language laboratories need not only high proficiency in the target language but also knowledge of the oral method and use of language laboratories.
5) We need teaching materials designed specifically for language laboratories.
6) We need to test or evaluate students' improvement in the language laboratory.

I will discuss supervision and administration of language laboratories, factors which are often ignored but which are very important to the effectiveness of language laboratories.

## Administration of Language Laboratories

**Organization**

In Japanese colleges, many language laboratories seem to be a facility of the English Department or the foreign languages department. However, in American colleges, they are often independent departments. Stack (1977) reported that more than half of colleges he had investigated had independent language laboratories, and they were used for various subjects, including mathematics, English, history, music, chemistry, anthropology, classics, literature, geology, sociology, education, technology, speech, business, philosophy, forestry, economics, physics, and statistics. Stern (1976) reported that more than forty percent of the language laboratories he had investigated were used for more than two purposes. Language laboratories are referred to by more than twenty different names. As for the University of Kansas, the language laboratory belongs to the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences; it has an equal relationship with the foreign language departments, such as French, German, and Spanish; and it is budgeted independently (Kitao, 1975a; Kitao, 1975b).

## Facilities

**Comparison of types.** As for facilities of language laboratories, the studies indicate that the A-A-C is the most effective, the A-A type is the next most effective, and A-A type, in which students only listen to the tape, is the least effective. A-A-C type language laboratories have more cassette tape recorders than open reel tape recorders. The library system, in which students check out tapes and listen to them in booths, seems to be more common than broadcasting systems, in which the central station controls the tapes and broadcasts them.

The A-A-C type of laboratory is more expensive to install, and its maintenance costs are also higher than the A-A type, and the E-C type (electronic classroom), which is getting more popular, is less expensive but more effective than the A-A type. E-C-type arrangements are very popular in high schools which cannot afford to have large laboratories. More than eighty percent of language laboratories installed in high schools in Kansas during the 1970s were E-C type (Garinger, 1978).

**Electronic classrooms.** The definition of the electronic classroom is as follows:

> an integrated group of wired electronic components, with no booths or tape recorders for the student, but with an audio-activated headset and microphone at each desk; for the teacher there is a permanently installed control console with multiple program sources and monitor-intercom switches. All the equipment for the student is retractable, in "chandeliers," up to the ceiling. The electronic classroom is therefore immediately convertible for other subject matter instruction (Smith and Hocking, 1969: 10).

Electronic classrooms were developed in the 1950s, and when a low-noise microphone was invented in the 1960s, they spread very rapidly. A model electronic classroom opened at the University of Kansas in 1966. Twelve electronic classrooms were installed in 1973, along with a new language laboratory, and all language classes were held in those twelve classrooms.

The biggest advantage of the electronic classroom is that it is less expensive (only two-thirds the cost of the A-A-C type) than regular language laboratories. There are no individual tape recorders, which contributes to the control of maintenance costs. In 1973, electronic classroom for thirty students at the University of Kansas cost about $8,000 (Personal communication, Garinger, E. E., August, 1978).

The second advantage is that if the "chandeliers" are raised, the room can be used either as an ordinary classroom or as an electronic classroom, even within the same class period. The equipment does not take much space, and it is easy to convert classrooms to electronic classrooms and back to ordinary classrooms. Therefore, it is not necessary to move students from language laboratories to regular classrooms or vice versa during the class, and it is easier to make language class schedules. In addition, it is possible to use language laboratory equipment for drills at any time during the class.

The third advantage is that it is easy to move chairs around and have pair or group activities.

The electronic classroom also has some disadvantages. The first disadvantage is that it is not possible for individual students to use it. They cannot use it for individual practice, homework, or tests. The second one is that students hear some noise, since there are no booths.

The effective way to use an electronic classroom is to use it in conjunction with the A-A-C type. The electronic classroom can be used during language classes, and the A-A-C type for the individual practice and tests.

There are two large A-A-C type language laboratories (60 booths each) at the University of Kansas. They use both broadcasting and library systems. From nine to four o'clock, students can listen to about one hundred tapes using the broadcasting system. Each booth has twenty channels, each laboratory is divided into two sections, and the same channel in one of four sections is connected to the same tape recorder. Each tape rewinds automatically when it reaches the end.

**Attached facilities.** Language laboratories can also have attached facilities, which give them more flexibility and allow them to expand the types of materials available to students.

A recording room makes it possible to make teaching materials for the language laboratory with native-speaking teachers. This allows teachers to develop materials that meet the particular needs and goals of their students, to expand on materials that the language laboratory already has, etc.

A good quality short wave radio is also useful. Broadcasts from overseas can be used as the basis for teaching materials.

Recording and duplicating machines are necessary. In order to make many duplicates of cassettes, a high speed duplicator is essential. These machines can make several copies in just a few minutes, so they make it possible to have a library system from which students can borrow cassettes to take home and study. Recording machines that copy from cassettes to open-reel tapes or vice versa are also necessary.

It is often necessary to repair machines, and some tools are necessary. It is convenient to have a room for repair.

**Audio-visual equipment.** Audio-visual equipment has also been adopted by many schools. According to Stern, more than half of the language laboratories have some kind of audio-visual equipment (Stern, 1976). Among those, video tape recorders are most popular. Odom's survey shows that 82.4% colleges and junior colleges have video tape recorders (Odom, 1976). Stack (1977) reported that the number of video tapes for language laboratories has increased rapidly. In 1974, video cassette tape recorders were more common than open-reel tape recorders (McAndrew, 1975).

According to Stack (1977), the use of computers has also increased rapidly. Language laboratories at the University of Michigan were completely controlled by the computer (Machida, 1975).

In addition to these facilities, teaching materials, books on language teaching, language laboratories and teaching materials are collected and stored in a small library in the language laboratories.

**Personnel.** In Japanese colleges, language laboratories do not have a full time supervisor, and either faculty members take turns supervising the language laboratory or staff members run it. However, in American colleges, language laboratories have the status of a department. Thus a full time director is often appointed. About one third of the directors are foreign language professors, and the rest are administrators or technicians.

Among directors of language laboratories, more than 60% have an educational qualification of an MA or above, and 23% have a doctoral degree (Edgar, 1977). This indicates that their position is recognized as being important (Stern, 1976). As for the University of Kansas, the director must have an educational background and experience related to language laboratories, language teaching, and audio-visual materials. It is necessary for the director of a language laboratory to be knowledgeable in these areas in order to develop the language laboratory effectively.

About one-third of language laboratories have an electronic technician, who operates complicated machines. About one-fifth have a librarian who does some secretarial work as well as keeping materials (Stack, 1977).

Since the personnel cost is high, American language laboratories use many student assistants. About 80% of language laboratories hire students, and 30% hire seven or more students (Stern, 1976). They are hired at minimum wage or somewhat above. Wages range from $2.05 to $3.75 (Stack, 1977). Employment of students is supported by the federal government, and college students are given quite a bit of responsibility in their work.

At the University of Kansas Language Laboratory, except the director, all workers are students. About 17-18 students take turns administering the laboratory. The students have the responsibility for hundreds of thousands of dollars worth of equipment. Three students are hired as half-time staff members, and they have privileges and responsibilities as staff members. Their qualifications are reliability, responsibility, good judgment, leadership, ability to learn quickly, ability to type more than forty words per minute, and the expectation of working for more than two years. It is preferable that they have knowledge of electronics, language, and educational theory.

Student assistants are assigned to four departments: administration, programming, library, and technical. Administration involves doing regular office work as well as distributing information among the director, faculty members, and others both in and out of the university. The programming department is responsible for setting tapes on the tape recorders, planning the duplication of cassette tapes, storing tapes, etc. Library assistants make duplicates of cassette tapes, loan out tapes, collect and keep materials, and contact students. The technical department maintains and repairs machines and does recordings.

**Workload of the director.** The director of a language laboratory has heavy responsibilities in a wide variety of areas. The director's responsibilities include personnel, budgeting, programs, maintenance of machines, purchasing materials, and daily routine work.

Personnel responsibilities include hiring employees (who are often students), scheduling their working hours around their free time and the everyday needs of the language laboratory. The experience of the employees must also be taken into account. Particularly when students are involved, there is likely to be a high turnover, so it is important to schedule inexperienced employees with experienced ones.

Budgeting involves calculating annual expenditures and making budgets for new projects in order to obtain funding from the university.

Responsibilities related to programs have to do with foreign language classes. These include contacting each department for their class schedules and knowledge about their programs.

Maintenance contracts need to be negotiated for large equipment, and it is necessary to periodically check those machines. For small machines, students with technical skills take care of them. The contracts for the maintenance are expensive, but whatever happens, the maker repairs immediately, and this is a kind of insurance.

Purchasing mainly involves materials and office supplies. Tapes bought for the laboratory come with the copying right for the use of the laboratory. As soon as they are purchased, the responsible language laboratory employee and the faculty member involved make the master tape for reproduction. After this, any employee can make as many copies as necessary.

In addition to the above, a vital aspect of the director's work involves public relations. Members of the faculty must know what facilities and materials are available in the language laboratory in order to make use of them and to communicate the value of using the laboratory to students. How well the laboratory is used affects the following year's budget. If it is not used, it has no value.

Orientation to the language laboratory is one of the most important means of getting information to the faculty and others. At the University of Kansas, orientations are given to student assistants, students, and faculty members who use it. Student assistants learn about laboratory facilities and administration. Faculty members learn the functions of the laboratory, how to use the service, and how to use consoles. Students learn about the value of the laboratory, how to study in the laboratory, how to use the machines, and how to use the services. At the University of Kansas, the director gives the orientation and in order to avoid problems, anyone who has not had an orientation cannot use the laboratory.

Language laboratories are considered to be important in foreign language instruction, and some universities have required courses on how to administer language laboratories for students majoring in foreign language education (Richardson, 1970). A proposal has been made to make a graduate program to train the directors of the language laboratories (Reid, 1968). The University of Kansas had courses on the graduate and undergraduate level on administration of language laboratories. The director of the laboratory taught the theory and practice of using language laboratories, with emphasis on practice.

## Ways to Use the Language Laboratories

It is most important that language laboratories are effective and are used frequently. Stack (1977) reported that in the United States they are used outside of class 92% of the time. Thus their location and hours affect student use a great deal.

It is desirable that language laboratories be located near classrooms where foreign language classes are held, or in a central location on the campus where students can stop by conveniently. If that is not possible, a satellite system is good, with branch laboratories located near foreign language classrooms and in central locations. If a broadcast system is used, the main and branch laboratories can be connected with special cables or using telephone lines. In either case, installment and maintenance would be expensive, so a library system is preferable. Branch laboratories can be located in reading rooms or similar facilities where many students come, and where there can be a staff member available. An A-A-C type laboratory can be installed, and students check out tapes and listen to them in booths. If teachers give language laboratory homework, time cards can be used to keep records.

In order to avoid limitations imposed by the hours that language laboratories are open, the laboratory can lend tapes and a cassette tape players to the students or can make copies of tapes onto students' blank tapes using a high-speed duplicator. The University of Illinois started a system of language laboratory services on the phone in 1967 (Morrison, 1972). The University of Kansas offered a 24-hour phone service to listen to short wave news (Kitao, 1975c). This is an edited five-minute short wave news broadcast on tape, which starts when a phone call comes in and rewinds when it is finished.

In order to motivate students to study foreign languages, it is important to make them interesting. Providing a wide variety of materials and making self study programs helps motivate students.

Language laboratories were often used to enhance "individualization." However, large-scale language laboratories have not been expanded greatly since the end of the 1960s, though the use of cassette tape recorders has increased (Smith, 1972). Card readers (Kitao, 1976) and equipment combining slides, a TV monitor, and headphones for one to five people are also purchased.

## Conclusion

The facilities of language laboratories are very good in Japan. Language laboratories are also widely used in the United States. However, factors such as schedules, teacher training, development of teaching materials, and evaluation need to be considered more carefully. Facilities have not been improved a great deal in the United States since the National Defense Education Act because of the lack of financial support after the NDEA in the late 1950s and early 1960s in the United States. However, those responsible for language laboratories put emphasis on how to use existing language laboratories to their fullest. They consider how to get the best use out of the equipment they have, and they spend a great deal of effort and finance for administration.

I have discussed the administration in college language laboratories, but I hope this paper will be useful for administration of language laboratories in junior and senior high schools as well.

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## Note

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# 18. The History of Language Laboratories
## – Origin and Establishment –

Kenji Kitao

### Abstract

In this paper, I discussed the history of language laboratories. It was Edison's invention of the tin foil phonograph in 1877 that made the first language laboratories possible. It was used for a foreign language class for the first time in 1891. At first, records were mainly used to preserve rare languages, but in the late 1800s and early 1900s, correspondence courses were developed using records. Students listened to records, recorded their own voices speaking the languages, and sent their recordings back to the company for evaluation. The procedures used by these early correspondence schools established methods that were later used in language laboratories. Between 1900 and 1950, equipment became more sophisticated, with the invention and development of tape recorders and television, and schools began establishing language laboratories. Language laboratories were given impetus by funds provided when the National Defense Education Act was passed in 1958. I also described various language laboratory programs and studies done on their effectiveness.

## Introduction

Technology has improved a great deal recently in Japan, and electronic equipment of various kinds is widespread. Such equipment as videotape recorders and personal computers is becoming common for daily use, both in the home and in companies and schools.

Language laboratories have greatly improved and are rapidly becoming more complex and expensive. Students often have tape recorders, headphones, and a microphone in individual booths. Language laboratories also have audiovisual equipment such as videotape recorders, overhead projectors, opaque projectors, and slide and movie projectors.

Videotapes are being replaced by laser disks, and laser disk players can be interfaced with a computer to allow branching. Computers are also used for administration and evaluation. Although language laboratories are well developed and Japanese language laboratory equipment is highly respected internationally, the effectiveness of their use has been questioned by American teachers who observed language laboratories in Japan (McAndrew, 1975).

I discussed how to make language laboratories more effective in "Administration of a Language Laboratory in College" (Kitao, 1979), analyzing studies of language laboratories conducted in the United States. In order to use language laboratories effectively, (1) equipment, (2) teachers, (3) teaching materials, (4) programs, and (5) evaluations have to be considered carefully. The most important factor is that language laboratories be used as frequently as possible. I explained organization, equipment, personnel, routine work, etc., and how these can be used to make the language laboratory function smoothly.

Since writing that paper, I have become interested in how today's language laboratories were developed. I have studied the history of American language laboratories, because they have contributed the most to language laboratory development world-wide (Freudenstein, 1972; Amano, 1967).

The history of the American language laboratory can be divided into five periods, (1) the beginning period, before World War II, (2) the establishing period, until 1958 when the National Defense Education Act (NDEA), which supplied large amounts of money for education, was passed, (3) the developing period, until the end of the 1960's, (4) the diminishing period, until the end of the 1970's, and (5) the revival period, to the present.

In this paper, I will discuss the first two periods. I hope to find some hints about the future development and improvement of language laboratories. My major resources are *NALLD Journal*, published by the National Association of Learning Laboratory Directors and *The Modern Language Journal*, a long-established journal on foreign language instruction.

## Origin of Language Laboratories

Language laboratories have been practical since around 1950. However, their origin dates back to Edison's invention of the tin foil phonograph in 1877, from which our deluxe language laboratories with all their complex equipment grew.

The phonograph was originally invented for the preservation and reproduction of sound. The sounds from this first phonograph were difficult to hear and unclear. The use of a tin cylinder was restricted to a limited number of repetitions (Peterson, 1974).

Though the quality of this early phonograph was not good, it was the only method for preserving sounds at the time. It was used to preserve African, Indian, and Polynesian languages which were becoming extinct (Peterson, 1974).

In 1884, Drs. Zintgraff and Chavanne of Germany recorded a language of an unknown tribe in the Congo using this phonograph. It was also used to record languages, songs, and folklore of Passamaquoddy Indians in New England, and to record a language of natives in Hawaii. Professor Money traveled thirty thousand miles to record American and Mexican Indians. Dr. A. L. Krober recorded the language and customs of Mojave Indians at the end of the nineteenth century (Peterson, 1974).

Several kinds of phonographs were produced besides Edison's in the 1880's. Therefore, we do not know which phonograph was actually used in the above recordings. Alexander Graham Bell produced a phonograph called a Graphophone which uses a cardboard cylinder with wax for a record. This record could be used longer than Edison's. In 1887, Emile Berliner made a Gramophone which used a round flat record. This is the ancestor of the record player. In the same year, Edison, who had been concentrating on developing incandescent light, turned his attention again to the phonograph and improved his original invention and made what he called the "Perfected Phonograph." Its quality was good enough to preserve foreign languages, and his original aim was finally achieved (Edison, 1888).

In 1889, plastic records were sold. North American Phonograph sold waxed cylinders (records) for phonographs and graphophones starting in 1890. These records were used with jukeboxes to play music in public places, and they were not for personal use.

J. Walter Fewkes argued that Edison's phonographs were useful not only for preserving languages that were becoming extinct but also for teaching foreign languages. Though recordings of native speakers would be most useful for non-native speaker teachers, he also argued that records could be used effectively by native speakers, because students could listen to the recordings over and over (Peterson, 1974).

Edison's phonograph was used in a foreign language class for the first time at the College of Milwaukee in 1891. It was experimented with in French and other foreign language classes, and it was found to be helpful in that, once a teacher had recorded something, the machine did not tire, and students could listen to the records as many times as they wanted (Peterson, 1974).

Until the 1890s, records used soft brown wax, and they could not be copied or used again and again. Edison used special wax to increase the number of times a record could be used, and he succeeded in making 150 copies of one record that was made with this special wax (Koenigsberg, 1969). In 1894, flat round records were sold, as well as wax cylinders. In 1900, it became easy to record directly onto flat round records with wax, and this became the origin of today's records.

In the same year, Dr. John E. Gardner of the University of California taught Chinese concurrently in San Francisco and at the University of Pennsylvania, using a wax cylinder which was sent to the latter class. It was reported that the class in Pennsylvania did not have any problems with pronunciation or pitch (Peterson, 1974). Phonographs were considered useful in foreign language instruction in the late nineteenth century, because they could preserve language and play it. It was highly evaluated by teachers in that once something was recorded, it could be used over and over again.

## Applications of Phonographs to Foreign Language Instruction

Rafael Diez de la Cortina is thought to be the first teacher to develop a method for teaching a foreign language using a phonograph. He established a foreign language school in New York in 1882 and experimented with using recordings a great deal in the mid- to late 1880s. The National Phonographic Company was established in 1900, and according to its guide, Cortina was the first person who used a phonograph for foreign language instruction. However, in *The Phonogram*, an academic journal, the Cortina method was not reported until 1893.

According to Cortina's advertisements, he made materials for self study and for class use. He published several textbooks on French and Spanish. The first one was *Spanish in Twenty Lessons*. According to his ads, he thought that any material was useful if it was used with the phonograph, but that material specially written for use with the phonograph was more effective.

Cortina gave correspondence courses in which he sent materials and cylinders (records) all over the world, but particularly to South

America and Mexico. Students made recordings and sent them back to New York, where they were evaluated and corrected. By 1897, more than a thousand cylinders had been sold. The advertising campaigns emphasized that the recordings could produce sound without tiring. Both French and Spanish cylinders were sold at one dollar per cylinder. Cortina made them at his school at first, though after 1896, they were probably made at Edison's National Phonographic Company. Cortina Phone, the trade mark, was established in 1908, and flat round records were made after 1913. Cortina's courses were used in and out of classes and in overseas correspondence courses. English was used for instruction until around 1920, but after that lessons were produced in which only the target language was used, based on the influence of the Direct Method (Peterson, 1974).

Dr. Richard S. Rosenthal was also influential in the development of the use of phonographs for foreign language instruction. He became internationally famous with *The Meisterschaft System* for teaching French and German, and he also published Italian and Spanish courses. He moved to Chicago in 1893, and he published the *Rosenthal Method of Practical Linguistry* and *Physician's German Vademcum*.

He thought that it was important to use the eyes and ears at the same time, and he advertised ten books, a cylinder, and a ten-way hearing tube for thirty dollars. He emphasized grammar, in contrast to the Direct Method, and he believed that the learner must listen to the language for a time before attempting to produce it. He published the *Language Phone Method*, and it became the trademark of his materials. He made flat round records in 1914, but other than that, his materials did not substantially change (Rosenthal, 1941).

The third program to use phonograph records for foreign language instruction is International Correspondence Schools of Scranton in Pennsylvania. They used records for correspondence courses for coal miners. This program was founded by Thomas J. Foster in 1891. Correspondence courses in French, German, and Spanish were offered using a method similar to those used by Cortina and Rosenthal. The International Correspondence Schools had only correspondence courses and sent machines and cylinders to learners and made corrections (Peterson, 1974).

Looking at these three schools, it appears that the principles that would later be used in language laboratories were well established by the late nineteenth or early twentieth century. Their procedure was to have students play model recordings and record their own voices and then have teachers evaluate and correct the students' efforts. They used textbooks along with the recordings. These were the principles of the use of the language laboratories. Through the 1920s and even beyond, these three methods were very popular, and they were even incorporated into university programs.

## Development of Machines

Foreign language records became more and more popular and many exaggerated claims were made for them. Some advertisers claimed that a new method of teaching foreign languages was found. This had the effect of casting doubt on language laboratories as a whole, an effect that is still being felt (Freudenstein, 1972).

Equipment became more and more sophisticated after 1920. First, television developed very fast after 1920. J. L. Baird demonstrated it in public in Britain in 1926, and in the following year, it was exhibited in public at the Bell Telephone Laboratory. Experimental telecasting was started in 1929 in Britain, in Germany and France in 1935, and in the United States the following year. However, because of World War II, its development was delayed. Television as we know it today appeared after World War II. Movies were invented in 1894. Eugene Lauste, a Frenchman, invented the "talkie" in 1910, and it became practical, and "Don Juan," the first talkie, was shown in 1926. Radio was invented in 1895 and was often used in foreign language instruction beginning in the 1920s.

Tape recorders also had their origin around this time. Oberin Smith argued for the use of wires to preserve sound in 1888. Valdemar Poulsen of Denmark invented a magnetic recorder with piano wire in 1898. It was called a telegraphone. However, both inventions had more problems than advantages, and they did not get much attention (Freudenstein, 1972). In 1928, Fritz Pfleumer obtained a patent for a paper tape with iron powder that could be used to record sounds with a magnet, which was based on the same principle as the recording tape we use today. In 1934, Bell Company made an endless tape with magnetized iron as an experiment. At the beginning of World War II, the "sound mirror," a tape recorder with a wire that recorded for a minute, was developed.

As I have explained, equipment found in language laboratories such as tape recorders, movies, and television were developed in 1920s. They were developed rapidly up to World War II. Radios were especially widespread, and they were used in foreign language instruction. The recording industry also became very popular beginning in the 1920s.

## Use of Language Laboratories at School

A teacher named Clarke, who used records to teach languages at Yale University for a long time, emphasized four principles related to using records (Freudenstein, 1972).

1) Records always play the same model.
2) Machines never get tired.
3) Machines cannot replace teachers.
4) Native speakers of the target language should be used for recordings.

These four principles are valid even in today's language laboratories, and 3) and 4) were new at that time.

We do not know very much about how language laboratories were used in schools in the 1920s. I will discuss two examples, one from Mississippi State College for Women and one from Ohio State University.

The former school recognized language laboratories as not only desirable but also essential for basic language classes. Language classes met four times a week (including once for a language laboratory) for three credits. They used language laboratories for verb exercises, pronunciation, phonetics, songs, games, explanations of grammar, conversation, memorization, etc., which teachers wanted to do but did not have enough time to do in the classroom.

Language laboratories were administered by student assistants. There were twenty-four students in each language laboratory with an assistant for every seven or eight students who in turn was supervised by the teacher. The language laboratory class met once a week, and the teacher made all the plans for the class. Faculty members checked on whether the assistants were good teachers rather than their work or results. Students studied hard in small groups with an assistant rather than a teacher. They often practiced pronunciation with records, but records were also used for songs, dramas, poems, and fables. Students not only studied how to pronounce sounds correctly but also learned to write pronunciation symbols. Such activities as Stunt Night — a semi-annual event in which students presented such "stunts" as tableaux, dances, songs, skits, and historical sketches — were also very popular. There was also a club for more advanced students (Pierson, 1927).

Ohio State University reported on their language laboratories. They were very practical in nature and useful for teaching. The main purpose of the language laboratories was taking the burden of drills off of the teachers and putting the responsibility on the students.

Language laboratories were established in 1924 or 1925 and used for language classes and classes in phonetics, educational principles, and public speaking. The facilities were poor. Sixteen students sat together at a table with a phonograph with earphones. Students were supervised in their studies using time cards. The language laboratory was open until eleven o'clock at night for students to do homework (Waltz, 1930). The records were eight minutes long and could be used twenty-five to a hundred times. After that, they were sharpened and used for another one hundred times. They each cost about seventy-five cents (Waltz, 1931).

Advantages of language laboratories were thought to be 1) they made it possible to listen to many native speakers, 2) students did not have to hear other students' incorrect pronunciation, 3) they made it possible to listen to the lesson many times and practice, 4) they lightened the teachers' burden of doing drills, 5) they allowed students to prepare for the class enjoyably, 6) they made it possible to test listening and speaking, and 7) lessons could be changed easily by replacing cylinders (Waltz, 1930).

In both colleges, language laboratories were used as extensions of classes; the former with self study and the latter for class administration. These two types of language laboratories are still in use in the United States today.

In the 1920s, the equipment was not good, the quality of the recordings was poor, and the recordings could not be used many times. The limitations of language laboratories were already becoming clear. 1) In the quarter system, students did not have enough time in the language laboratory over the course of the quarter. 2) Students needed to study reading most. 3) Students could not imitate utterances correctly by themselves. 4) Students cheated on the time cards. 5) Students tended to study without the records, since pauses after the utterances were too long, and so using the records was time-consuming. 6) Because of the poor quality of the records, there was a lot of distracting background noise through the earphones. 7) Students without language laboratories showed a greater improvement in their grades (Schneck, 1930).

Waltz (1932) reported on two studies of pronunciation, one which involved teaching Irish dialect to American students and one which involved teaching articulation to American students. While these were not of foreign language teaching, they may shed light on the use of language laboratories to teach pronunciation in foreign language courses. In both cases, researchers compared the results of working independently in a language laboratory over a period of time (listening, imitating, and using the recorded imitations to check the pronunciation) with instruction and drilling in class. In both cases, the students who worked independently in the language laboratory showed more improvement than the ones who were in the classroom. Waltz concluded that language laboratories have the advantages that they 1) provide a consistent, correct model, which the students can use for practice in privacy, 2) help motive students, because they can see their progress, 3) free classroom time for other types of work, and 4) save the teacher's energy.

Freudenstein (1972) believed that the birth of language laboratories occurred around 1930, and some publications on language laboratories appeared around that time. They were considered to have been accepted and established.

## The Establishment of Language Laboratories

Amano (1967) has reported in detail on the development of language laboratories from the end of World War II until the passage of the National Defense Education Act (NDEA) in 1958.

Green Mountain Junior College put into practice the method of the Specialized Army Training Program (SATP) in the classroom for the first time, and this program reflected some of the principles of today's language laboratories. These principles are 1) individualized instruction at each student's level of ability, 2) intensive instruction, 3) training for listening with model speeches on records, 4) developing expressions with repetitions, 5) use of self-made materials with commercial materials, 6) arrangement of materials according to difficulty level, 7) instruction by teachers and assistants throughout the class hour, 8) evaluation of students' levels of proficiency, 9) efforts to increase motivation, and 10) recording the foreign language at the beginning and end of the lesson (Amano, 1967). These principles are still useful for language laboratories today.

Birmingham Southern College in Alabama used a portable phonograph and records and evaluated them highly, saying, "It brings languages to life because it brings life to languages," in 1943 (Whitehouse, 1945: 590).

Johnson (1946) argued that audio-visual materials are necessary to help students achieve linguistic and cultural goals. These materials should be carefully planned, which is important in the process of learning. Students can develop listening ability if they have many opportunities to listen to the target language. Adequate use of recordings is effective for training, not only for listening but also for speaking. These points were supported by people who wanted to develop language laboratories.

By 1946, the University of Texas, Northwestern, Cornell, Yale, Georgetown, and the University of Florida had language laboratories, and some high schools were also interested in establishing them. In 1946, New York City suggested that city schools also establish language laboratories (Amano, 1967). The University of Louisiana started a language laboratory class in 1946, and Wayne University did the same in 1948 (Ebelke, 1948).

In 1948, 28 junior colleges in the north central states responded to a survey. Nine of them had a recording machine, and five of them reported that it was effective for improving students' pronunciation (Ornstein and Johnston, 1949). Language laboratories have developed more variety since 1948, and the term language laboratory became the recognized technical term by 1955 (Amano, 1967).

Television and various recording machines were developed after World War II. Records were still important, but during the war, tape recorders with various types of tapes and wires were developed

(King, 1967). A tape recorder with wires was used in German classes to record students' voices and critique their pronunciation in 1946, and Scherer (1947) predicted that it would be used widely in high schools and colleges. Magnetic tapes were mass produced starting in 1946 (King, 1967).

Until around 1950, recording machines were sold as dictation machines or for replaying programs at broadcasting companies. Dunkel (1947) believed that recording machines could be used for foreign language teaching.

Around 1950, tape recorders became popular, and new teaching methods using language laboratories were developed. Principles for using them were already understood, but new techniques were what was needed (Freudenstein, 1972). In the 1950s, tape recorders with two tracks were made and students could listen and record at the same time (Freudenstein, 1972). Since 1955, the University of Delaware started a study on using visual aids in language laboratories (Kirch, 1969).

During the war, development of television had been stopped, but it continued after the war, and in 1948, color TV was invented. In 1951, broadcasting of black and white TV was done between the East and West Coasts, and in 1954, color TV was broadcast. In 1953, the first educational TV program was broadcast in Houston (Krymitz, 1971). It is reported that TV was used in a German class in 1955 (Formanek, Clausing, and Wood, 1974).

Video tape was experimented with in 1951 for the first time, and in 1952, the results of the research were published. In 1953 multiple track color video was developed. In 1956, Appex Company announced the revolving technique, commonly used today, which was good enough for broadcasting at that time.

This equipment was made before the NDEA, but a survey from 1957 to 1958 indicated that only 240 colleges and 54 high schools had language laboratories then (Amano, 1967).

American language laboratories were established before the

NDEA, and their use had been carefully considered, but they were relatively few in number, and they had to wait for the NDEA, which gave extensive national support, for expansion.

## Conclusions

Language laboratories with their deluxe audiovisual equipment and computers have their origin in the phonograph invented by Edison. At first, phonographs could only preserve sound and replay it, but it later became possible to record sounds and make copies of the recordings easily, and sound could be preserved longer. This set the stage for the use of phonographs in foreign language learning.

Phonographs were used in foreign language instruction, because once recorded, they did not tire, and students could listen to the recordings many times. In correspondence programs, students recorded their own voices while practicing what they had learned, and their efforts were evaluated by teachers. Special materials geared for use with recorded materials were developed beginning in the late nineteenth century.

Facilities and equipment for language laboratories were developed after 1920. First a recording industry developed for language learning materials, and their exaggerated advertising drew notice. Television developed after 1920, and then after World War II, today's television industry was established. Videotape recorders, the forerunners of the ones that have become common today, were developed under the NDEA. Movies with sound became practical by 1920. Radios were used often for foreign language instruction by 1920. Tape recorders, which are the heart of language laboratories, were developed by the 1920s. During World War II, tapes were used, and these developed quickly after the war and were also used under the NDEA.

The use of language laboratories in schools has increased since 1910. The principles that machines could not take the place of teachers and that recordings should be done by native speakers were included in publications before 1920. In the 1920s, language laboratories were used at Mississippi State College for Women and Ohio State University. The two systems of having students use language laboratories under the supervision of a teacher and independently part of the class or as an extension of the class were introduced. In either case, taking some of the burden off the teacher was an important advantage. Drills for pronunciation were the center of the language laboratory curriculum, and songs, games and new learning were tried.

Disadvantages of language laboratories became clear. Students did not have enough time in the language laboratory. There were courses to which language laboratories would not contribute much. Some students could not repeat the sounds correctly. Even today, we need to consider these problems in administering language laboratories. Without considering these problems, we cannot expect language laboratories to be effective.

After World War II, language laboratories spread gradually. There were some new trends. They began to be used for purposes other than foreign language instruction. Students' recordings became more central. Visual materials were used developed. However, there were still many schools without language laboratories, and they had to wait for financial assistance from the NDEA.

By the time the NDEA was passed, there were many publications about the value of language laboratories and teaching methods that make optimum use of language laboratories.

It is useful to review how our profession has been influenced by the development of technology, even as we make an effort to use more powerful machines effectively. Many of the principles that were established using simple early devices are still valuable today. However, it is easy to forget these important principles as we work with the more sophisticated modern technology of today.

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# 19. Motivating Students to Learn English by Combining Slide Presentations with Reading and Listening

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## Abstract

In working with Japanese college students over the past several years, we have found that it is sometimes difficult to motivate them to learn English. English does not seem to be real to them. It is not connected with their everyday life or interests. In trying to motivate students to learn English, it is important to present them with something in which they are interested. One thing that many Japanese students are interested in is other cultures. Therefore one solution for the problem of lack of motivation is to teach students about other cultures in English. One effective way we have found of doing this is by making slide programs with narration, vocabulary lists and exercises, supported by background readings with their own exercises. In this paper, we explained how to make these slide programs and how to use them in class and provide some suggestions for follow-up activities. These materials have been successful for us in motivating college students in Japan, and we believe that they would be useful in other settings as well.

In our experience teaching English to Japanese college students, we have often found that motivation is a problem. One of the reasons that Japanese students are not motivated to learn English is that it does not seem real to them in the sense of being a language that might actually be used for communication. For many Japanese students, studying English does not seem to have any particular use, except perhaps to get good grades on English tests (Kitao, 1982). It is not connected to the "real world" that students know.

## One Solution

One of the keys to motivating students to learn English is to let them study something that is of interest to them (Rivers, 1972). Because most Japanese students are interested in foreign countries and foreign cultures, one way of motivating them is to let them use English to learn more about other cultures (Hildebrant and Howard, 1980). This allows students to use English to do something that they want to be able to do — learn more about other cultures.

"Culture" can be defined as "socially transmitted behavior patterns, arts, beliefs, institutions, and all other products of human work and thought characteristic of a community or population." Using this definition, the topics included under the heading of "culture" are almost unlimited.

In this paper, we are going to describe one method of teaching students about other cultures — narrated slide presentations, accompanied by background readings, to use in English classes. We have made this type of material ourselves, and our students' responses have been very positive. In filling out feedback questionnaires at the end of the courses, more than half of the students indicated that the slide presentation, reading and exercises were the most enjoyable and memorable activity of the course, which lasted a year.

If aspects of other cultures are to be real to students, they have to do more than read or hear about them. Students also have to have something that they can see. Visual aids reinforce the impressions made by language. They also make an object, event or situation more real and more memorable to students. Many things are difficult or impossible to understand or visualize if you have not seen them. For example, students may read articles about Yellowstone National Park or a traditional American wedding ceremony, but unless they have seen them — or seen pictures of them — they cannot understand them well.

Especially in the typically large English classes found in Japan, it is difficult to use photographs. Slides are particularly useful in such cases. Slides are large and clear enough for all students to see. They are relatively easily available compared with some other media, such as films or video (Willis, 1983) and are inexpensive and easily handled and stored (Hirsch, 1954). When slides on a particular subject are not available, they can be made from photographs, pictures in books, and postcards.

We have made three slide presentations for students. They are about Niagara Falls, Boston, and New York. Each has a reading which gives students background about the subject of the slide presentation, a narrated slide presentation, and vocabulary lists and exercises for the reading and for the narration of the slide presentation.

The narrated slide presentation is a five-minute narration about some aspect of another culture, illustrated with thirty to forty slides. It is possible to use a wide variety of subjects for this type of material. Our slide programs were on famous places in the US. Famous places in other countries were obvious choices, because they are visually appealing, because Japanese students are interested in them, and because we had many slides and photographs of these places from our visits there. It is also possible to use aspects of daily life, student life, ceremonies such as weddings, and so on. Of course, the subject should be visually interesting, since that makes the best use of this type of material.

The background reading is important. One reason that students have difficulty with listening comprehension is that they know little about what to expect as they listen. Because listening is a receptive skill, it is usually thought of as a passive skill. However, this is not accurate. Listeners do not just take in what they hear (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill and Pincas, 1978). They try to fit what they hear with the knowledge of the world that they already have. If what listeners hear fits in with the background knowledge that they already have, listening is much easier than if the information is completely new (Smith, 1971). If little or nothing is known about a subject, it is more difficult to understand a discussion of it, since it does not "fit in" with anything that the listener already knows.

This is especially true when listening to something in a foreign language. If listeners already know something about the subject, they find it easier to understand what they hear. Therefore, the purpose of a background reading is to help students better understand the narration of the slide presentation when they hear it.

## Making the Background Reading

The methods that we use in the reading section were based on our experience in making experimental reading textbooks over the past five years. Some of these have been published in the US and Japan.[1]

### The Reading

The background reading can include different types of information, depending on the nature of the subject. For our reading about Niagara Falls, we gave students much of the same information that they would hear in the narration, but not all of it. This way, they would find both new information and old information as they listened to the narration, though much of the information would already be familiar. This approach is useful for lower level students. The amount of overlapping background information can be adjusted to the level of the students' ability.

More advanced students need less background information. In preparation for the slides and narration on famous Boston landmarks, students read about the involvement of Boston in the American Revolution, since many of the landmarks are related to that period of American history. Thus, the famous places that they saw and heard about were more meaningful when students knew something about their history. In writing the background reading, you should think about the students' level of ability and what information will be helpful in understanding the narration.

### Vocabulary

After the reading has been written or chosen, the next step is to make a list of vocabulary words that students would not be likely to know. These words need to be defined. If possible, use a vocabulary list for your students' academic level as the basis for the list of words you define. If such a list is not available, a number of frequency and difficulty lists exist. (See Rivers and Temperly, 1978, for a discussion of these.) Words that are not on the basic list, plus any that have special meanings, should be defined. We have found that it is a good general rule to limit the number of words that have to be defined to less than five percent of the total words in the text. If more than five percent need to be defined, the reading will probably be too difficult and frustrating for students.

When we began working on reading material, we found the words that needed to be defined by going through the texts word-for-word. One way to do this that saves a great deal of time in this task is to use a personal computer and a spelling check program. You can replace the program's dictionary with the vocabulary list you are using, and then run the program on your reading text. The result will be a list of words that are not on your vocabulary list — the words you need to define. This can save much time in checking words in your text against your vocabulary list.

### Exercises

You should also give students exercises that guide their understanding of the text. There are many different types of exercises. We will describe a few of them here and give some general guidelines for making them. These are not intended to be inflexible rules. How each exercise is made depends on the situation and the level of the students.

In general, exercises should be arranged from general to specific. The first exercises should require only a general understanding of a topic or a section of the narration.

**Pre-reading Exercises.** Pre-reading exercises help students learn to anticipate what they will be reading about so that they will comprehend it better (Paulston and Bruder, 1976). These exercises can take various forms, depending on what is appropriate for the particular narration. For example, you can have students look at the title or read the first few sentences of the text and then ask them what they think the reading is going to be about and what kind of information it is likely to include. You can also ask them questions that will elicit the information they already know about the subject (Where is Niagara Falls located? What is it famous for?), or ask them to list the things they would like to know about the subject (Grellet, 1981).

**Skimming Exercises.** Skimming exercises help students learn to look for specific information quickly or to get an overall idea of the reading. For the skimming exercise, either ask for specific pieces of information or ask questions about the general content or layout of the reading. When doing the skimming exercise, students should be given a limited amount of time to answer the questions, since the point of skimming exercises is to look for the information quickly.

**Comprehension Questions.** Comprehension questions help students find the main ideas and important details of the reading. The answers to comprehension questions can come directly from the reading or can require students to put together two or more pieces of information. They may also require students to understand unstated implications of the information (Paulston and Bruder, 1976).

To give a few simple examples of these types of questions, the text may say, "Goat Island is located between the Canadian Falls and American Falls." An example of a comprehension question that comes directly from the text would be, "What is the name of the island located between the two Falls?" If the text says, "The Canadian Falls is 176 feet high and 2200 feet wide, and the American Falls is 184 feet high and 1060 feet wide," a comprehension question that would require students to put two pieces of information together might be, "How much wider is the Canadian Falls than the American Falls?" A comprehension question that requires that students understand unstated implications might be, "Which of the two Falls is larger?"

The most common types of comprehension questions are short answer, true/false, and multiple choice questions. In the case of true/false and multiple choice, it is important that the false statements or incorrect choices are plausible in the context. If the text states, "The first description and drawing of Niagara Falls were published in 1678 by a French priest," the True/False question "The first description and drawing of Niagara Falls was published in 1978," is implausible. Even students who don't understand the text would know that descriptions of Niagara Falls were published long before 1978, so the statement must be false.

The short answer questions and the true statements or correct choices for multiple choice questions should be paraphrases of the text, rather than direct quotes. In the above example, instead of using "A description of Niagara Falls was first published in 1678," a question like "A French priest described and drew Niagara Falls in 1678," should be used. This helps keep students from answering questions without understanding either the question or the answer. If statements come directly from the text, students will just try to find something in the text with similar phrasing and vocabulary, instead of trying to understand the meaning (Rivers and Temperly, 1978).

**Chart Exercise.** If the reading has two or more parallel series of information, you can put the information in a chart. Leave blanks in the chart and ask students to fill in the blanks. This helps students organize the information and see the relationships among various pieces of information (Grellet, 1981).

**Organization Exercise.** In an organization exercise, students are given a list of topics from the text. The students put the topics in the order that they occur in the narration, or in chronological order. This helps students understand the overall organization of the text or its time sequence. If the exercise involves putting the topics in the order they are discussed in the text, this only requires a general understanding of the meaning.

**Cloze Exercise.** For a cloze exercise, either write a summary of the text or use a short section of the text itself. Leave blanks for some of the words. You can leave either function words or content words blank, depending on whether you want to emphasize grammatical structure or content (Rivers and Temperly, 1978). Have students fill in the blanks after reading the text. A cloze exercise that is a summary of the text helps students learn to deal with the same information in a different form.

**Outline Exercise.** An outline exercise is the same as a cloze exercise, except that it is done in outline form. In addition to helping students deal with the same information in a different form, it helps students see the relative importance of the pieces of information. More advanced students can use the outline to learn to do outlines themselves.

**Speaking Exercises.** A variety of speaking exercises can be used with readings, depending on the level of the students and their needs and interests. For example, grammatical structures from the text can be used as the bases for various types of drills and exercises. Asking and answering questions about the content of the text will provide speaking practice. Also, the aspects of culture discussed in the text can be the basis for discussion questions comparing and contrasting the students' own culture(s) with the culture described in the text.

## Making the Narration

For each project, we made a programmed tape with the vocabulary words, the text, and exercises. Slides were synchronized with the text on the tape. (Even if you do not put all this on the tape, you should put the narration itself on tape, since it is repeated several times.) We also made printed support materials that included the list of vocabulary words on the tape with difficult words defined in English, and exercises.

Through our experiences, we have found that a five-minute narration with a vocabulary list and several exercises can fill a ninety minute class. During that time period, students listen to the five-minute narration a total of five or six times. Specific suggestions for procedures for using the narrative, vocabulary, and exercises in the classroom are explained in the "Procedure in the Classroom" section.

### Narration

For most students, it is best to limit the narration to less than five minutes. We found that most of our students did not have a long enough attention span to listen to English for longer than that. (Of course, this depends, in part, on the level of the students and the amount of experience they have had listening to English.) If you need more than five minutes, and your students' attention span is not long enough, it is possible to divide the narration into two parts. In writing the narration, keep in mind that the slides should help the students comprehend it. The narration should be written in a way that the slides support the students' comprehension. As you write or select the narration, choose slides related to the points you want to include. When you have finished writing, reconsider the slides to see if they help the listeners understand the narration.

The content of the narration depends on the type of subject and the interests of the students for whom the material is intended. In our narratives, we included information about tourism, points of interest, historical and political background, etc. Other information may be included if it is appropriate to the subject and if the students are interested.

### Vocabulary

You should also make a vocabulary list for the text, with definitions, to be given to students in advance of listening to the narration. This list of vocabulary words should be made on the same principles as the one for the reading, but we have found, in our experience, that if the number of words on the list exceeds two or three percent of the total number of words, students will find the listening passage too difficult. It is useful to also include words and collocations on the list that the students should know by sight but that they may not recognize when they hear. This is especially important if the students live in a country where English is not used in everyday life, so that they rarely have a chance to hear it spoken. Before the students listen to the narration, they should listen to the vocabulary words and repeat each word.

Various types of exercises can be used with the narration.[2] Listening exercises, along with the vocabulary list and definitions, are given to students as printed support material.

Like reading exercises, listening exercises should be arranged from general to specific. The first exercises should require only a general understanding of a topic or a section of the narration. Later exercises require students to comprehend more specific points and even to distinguish specific words.

**Pre-listening Exercises.** These are similar to pre-reading exercises. They prepare students for what they will hear in the narration. Students can look at the title of the narration, listen to the first few lines, or view a few slides and then discuss what they think will be included. They can also discuss what they already know or what they would like to know about the subject.

**Comprehension Questions.** Multiple choice, true/false, and short answer questions can also be used as listening exercises. Like questions for reading exercises, they can come directly from the reading exercises, require students to put two or more pieces of information together, or require students to understand the unstated implications of the narrations.

Questions should be given to students before they listen to the narration, so that they know what to expect. These questions can also be used as pre-listening exercises. You can discuss with students what they can tell about the content of the narration from reading the questions.

Unless the students are advanced, it may be helpful to give them a sentence to answer the short answer questions, with blanks for the key words. In that way, students do not have to worry about producing a sentence, only finding the answer to the question (Paulston and Bruder, 1976).

**Cloze Exercise.** Cloze exercises can also be used as listening exercises. Either a summary or a transcription of a portion of the narration can be used. A cloze exercise that is based on a transcription can be used to help students learn to distinguish particular words, especially unstressed words.

**Dictation Exercise.** For a dictation exercise, choose some sentences from the narration. (Start with sentences of about ten words and increase the number of words to fifteen or twenty.) Read each sentence to students three times, once at normal speed, once slowly phrase by phrase, and the last time a little slower than normal speed.

**Correction Exercise.** For a correction exercise, students are given a transcript of a section of the narration, but with errors. As they listen to the section of the narration twice, they find and correct the errors. Different kinds of errors can be used, including omitting, adding or changing words.

**Pause and Intonation Exercise.** For this exercise, give students a transcript of a section of the text, but with no punctuation and no capital letters at the beginnings of sentences. Have them listen to that section, marking long and short pauses or rises and falls in intonation. Students then figure out where periods and commas should be. This exercise helps students understand the relationships among intonation, pauses, and units of meaning in English.

**Speaking Exercises.** Speaking exercises similar to those used with the reading can be used with the narration.

These are just a few of the main types of exercises. Obviously, which ones you use will depend on your students and the characteristics of the narration.

## Procedure in the Classroom

Students can be given the background reading and the exercises to do as homework. The answers to the exercises should be discussed in class before the narration and its exercises are used.

Before listening to the narration, students listen to the list of vocabulary words and repeat each word. This has two purposes. It refreshes students' memories on the vocabulary they studied and gives them an opportunity to hear the words, some of which they may never have heard before.

Next, they listen to the entire narration, while watching the slides. As a general rule, it is best to give students something specific to listen for each time they listen to the narration (Cervantes and Noji, 1984). The first time students listen to the narration, as they watch the slides, an organization exercise is useful. Students read the list of topics first and then listen to the narration and watch the slides. After they have listened to the narration, they put the topics in order.

For the purpose of doing the rest of the exercises, the narration should be divided into sections. Students read or listen to the questions and then listen to a section of the narration. They mark tentative answers to questions during or after the first listening. Then they listen to the section of the narration again to check their answers (Rivers and Temperly, 1978). For the first set of questions (for example, true/false), this is done on sections of the narration thirty seconds to one minute long. For the next set of questions (for example, short answer questions), you can combine these short sections to make longer sections.

Next, you can do exercises that require students to listen to the entire narration, or a long section of it, for example, an outline or cloze exercise. The advantage of this technique is that students listen to the narration several times, but they do not get bored with it, because they listen to it in sections and have a task each time they listen. It seems to be helpful to finish up by having the students see the slides and listen to the narration for the last time. This gives students an opportunity to relax and enjoy the slide program, once they understand what it is about.

If you think that students may have difficulty in doing some of the exercises, you might want to go over the answers to each section after the students have completed it.

For our slide presentations, we generally used an organization exercise for the first time the students listened to the tape. It included eight to ten of the general topics from the narration, which the students had to put in the order that they were mentioned. Second, we usually had students listen to short sections of the narration and answer true/false questions. Next, they listened to longer sections and answered short answer questions. In addition, we usually had them do at least two types of exercises that covered the content of the narration (e.g., outline or cloze exercises) and one or two other types of exercises (e.g., corrections or dictation exercises). After the first time, they listened to the narration without the slides. After the last exercise, if there was time, we had them listen to the narration with the slides one last time.

## Follow-Up Activities

There are many interesting possibilities for follow-up to this type of activity. For further study, students can find more information about the subject of the slide presentation. If they listed the things they wanted to know about the subject as a pre-listening or pre-reading activity, they can use the topics not covered by the reading or slide presentation as a guide for their further study.

Students can also make slide projects of their own, either individually or in groups. If your students come from different parts of the country, they can do slide presentations with narrations about their own hometowns during the summer break. Students can also visit famous places in the local area and make slide projects about those places. Projects can also be done on some aspect of the students' own culture. These projects can be shared with the rest of the class. If doing slide projects is not feasible, students can put together photograph albums with captions in English describing the pictures or they can describe their pictures to other students and answer questions about the pictures. We have used this last type of activity, and it has been very successful. Getting Japanese students to use English among themselves for class activities is often very difficult, but for this exercise, students used English almost exclusively.

## Cost in Money and Time

Making this type of material is not very expensive, if you plan ahead. We used slides that we took while traveling and slides made from postcards and pictures that we bought while traveling. If you decide to do a slide program on a particular topic, you can take slides when you have opportunities. However, though it is not very expensive, it is time consuming. Writing the reading and the narrations, defining the vocabulary, and writing the exercises takes a great deal of time.

## Conclusion

Motivating students in language classes is often a problem. In this paper, we have suggested one solution to this problem that has worked well in our English classes in Japan, and, we believe, can be applied elsewhere. We made slide programs about different aspects of American culture with narrations, vocabulary lists, and exercises to help students understand them. To help students understand the narration better, we gave them, in advance, a background reading with vocabulary and exercises, usually given as homework. In class, they listened to a narration while watching slides and then did exercises to help them understand the narration. Our students' responses to a questionnaire indicated that they found the activity both enjoyable and memorable.

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## Notes

[1] The reading textbooks we have published (as of 1987) include:

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[2] Exercises described here are based on ones developed for Arima, T., Kitao, K., Kitao, S. K., & Yoshioka, K. (1984). *Enjoying America: Through the ear*. Tokyo: Eihosha.

# 20. Using Authentic Video Materials in the Language Classroom

S. Kathleen Kitao

## Abstract

Using video in English language classes has a number of advantages. Videos provide a context for language; narratives on videos make use of background knowledge, which aids comprehension; they allow students to explore the communication process as a whole, including emotions and gestures and other forms of nonverbal communication; videos are motivating; and they bring "real life" into the classroom.

Because of these advantages, there has been much interest in the uses of video in ELT in recent years, and many institutions have invested in video equipment and software. Unfortunately, this equipment is most often either unused or underused. Very often, the software is not appropriate.

In this paper, I would like to discuss the advantages and disadvantages of using video, compare it to other media, and discuss how teachers can use authentic material in the classroom, including choosing materials, how to make support materials, and how to use these in the classroom.

In recent years, teachers and administrators in language programs have had a great deal of interest in using video in their programs. Many schools have invested in video equipment and teaching materials. Unfortunately, this equipment often sits unused, or is, at best, underused. Some teachers do not feel comfortable using video; others do not have appropriate teaching materials available and do not know how to use authentic material – movies or television programs made by and for native speakers. In this paper, I would like to discuss some reasons for using video, some potential problems with video, and how to use authentic material.

## Advantages and Disadvantages of Video

### Advantages

There are a number of reasons for using video in the language classroom.

The visual context is helpful in comprehension.

> "The fact that words have meaning only in context has become a cliche. Unfortunately, the meaning of context in the cliche sometimes refers only to the sentence in which the word occurs. But context involves the relationships between the speakers and objects and actions and noises that are communicated along with the words themselves. (Fanselow, 1980: 152)

Video provides an authentic visual context for language. In a face-to-face interaction, the speaker assumes a shared context, including things that both the speaker and hearer can see. If both the speaker and hearer can see an object, they are likely to use a pronoun to refer to it. In real life, the verbal and non-verbal channels supplement and reinforce each other, and the situation reinforces both. If only the verbal channel is used, the message must be artificially explicit, and stress or intonation exaggerated. In using audio tapes, students do not practice interpreting the non-verbal channel and do not receive the additional information that it normally gives. In using a video tape, this artificial explicitness is not necessary (though it is true that even video materials are not entirely authentic in that they err slightly on the side of explicitness) (Willis, J., 1983:30-31). Non-native speakers tend to be more dependent on visual clues than native speakers do (Willis, J., 1983:29), so listening without a visual context is particularly difficult for non-native speakers.

In relation to presenting material in context, narratives – movies or television programs with a plot and characters – have advantages in language education. Narratives give language a context beyond the visual context. As the narrative progresses, students build up a background knowledge of the situation and characters. Comprehension becomes easier, because the background gives a better understanding of the situation and a basis on which to predict what may happen (Rost, 1983).

The visual context also allows students to explore the whole communication process, including emotions and attitudes, gestures and other forms of non-verbal communication (Sugimori, 1983:19). Although other media have advantages over video (see the following section), video makes available more of the elements of the communication process in natural conversation than other media and therefore allows students to analyze and experience the process as a whole.

Another important advantage of video is that it motivates students. In Japan, even after several years of studying English, few students have used English to do something that they want to do (aside from taking tests, which, in any case, generally requires knowledge about language rather than demonstration of an ability to use it). English is studied in the classroom with little relation to the students' world. However, most students like movies or TV programs, and using English to understand them gives students an opportunity to use English in a meaningful way.

Another reason that video motivates students is that it brings "real life" into the classroom and therefore has an immediate impact that an audio tape lacks. Although television or movie scripts are not exactly like real life, they are similar. Real life social interactions involved in speech are used. The dialogue sounds like real speech, with natural pronunciation and varieties of dialect and register (Schaepe, 1983). It also demonstrates the interaction between the verbal and non-verbal channels and the interaction between communication and context.

### Disadvantages

Although video has advantages, it is not appropriate in every situation. In fact, it has disadvantages in some cases.

Students associate video with entertainment, and at least initially, this motivates them. Unfortunately, though, because of this association, students may just sit back to be entertained. Also, this initial advantage will be lost if, for example, the level of difficulty is inappropriate or the material is not interesting to students.

Video is difficult to pace. The teacher must be especially sensitive to the reaction of the class to avoid moving too quickly or too slowly. It is easy to try to cover too much material in one session, which will result in low comprehension. It is also possible to repeat the material to the point that it becomes boring.

In some situations, other media can be used more effectively than video. While a VTR permits synchronization of sound and pictures and doesn't require a darkened room (unless a large-screen television monitor is used), the image projected by an overhead projector or a slide projector is larger and clearer. The teacher has more control over the pace of the material, and it is easier to point out things on the screen. Film has the advantages of providing a larger, better-defined picture, simplicity of use (though, of course, there is less versatility), and relative economy. (See Willis, D., 1983:17-19.)

## Preparing to Use Video

### Choosing Materials

Once a teacher has decided to use video materials, there are several aspects to consider. Of course, the choice of materials depends on the characteristics of the individual class and teacher, but some guidelines may be useful. These comments are intended primarily in reference to movies, but the principles discussed here and the suggestions for making materials that follow might also be applied to choosing other types of video, such as commercials, segments from news broadcasts, documentaries, and talk shows.

1. Choose material that is of interest to students. If possible, ask students what they would like to use. Choosing material that students are interested in makes use of the natural motivation that video provides (video won't be motivating for long if the material isn't interesting) and also, as mentioned above, allows students to use English to do something that they want to be able to do, that is, understand the story. It is difficult to make generalizations about what students might like, but many female students like romances, and mysteries are often popular. Action-adventure movies are also popular, but in some cases, students may be able to understand much of the plot without having to listen to the dialogue. Comedies may be difficult for students to enjoy, because humor is often hard to understand in a foreign language.
2. Choose material that is neither too difficult nor too easy. If comprehension is low, students will be frustrated; if they can understand the material easily, they will not be challenged (Schaepe, 1983). However, the students' comprehension will depend not just on the difficulty of the video material itself but also on the quality of the printed support material, the vocabulary lists and exercises that help students in comprehending the material. Even high school students can understand authentic material, such as a movie, if it is well-chosen, presented properly, and supported by good printed material (Schaepe, 1983). To mention some specific examples, I used *The Miracle Worker*, a movie about Helen Keller and Anne Sullivan, with a class of second-year students at a women's junior college. This movie works well with "false beginners" (students who have studied English for a long time but have great difficulty actually using it) or especially for their first experience using authentic video. The language is not particularly difficult, and many students are familiar with the story in a general

way, even though few of them have seen it. It may not be challenging enough for advanced students. I used *Psycho* with the same class, and, though it is slightly more difficult than *The Miracle Worker*, students were able to understand it fairly well. The Nancy Drew and Hardy Boys television series or *Little House on the Prairie* may also work well with this level. While *Gone with the Wind* is a long movie, it is not especially difficult. It would be a good movie to use with more advanced students who could cover large sections of it in each class, or alternately, with intermediate students as a series of isolated scenes. Other movies that might work well with more advanced students include *The Sting* and *Twelve Angry Men*.

3. Choose material that can be naturally divided into short segments. I have found that five to ten minutes can be covered in a single ninety-minute class, depending on the ratio of action to dialogue in the scene and students' level of ability. Trying to cover too much material in one class will often result in low comprehension and feelings of frustration (Schaepe, 1983).
4. Choose material that has a balance between action and dialogue. For example, if many of the scenes are static, with relatively little use of interaction between verbal and non-verbal channels of communication, using video has little advantage, and, in fact, the material might be better presented on audio tape, without the distractions and complications of video.
5. Don't worry about slang, idioms, and poor grammar, though it may be a good idea to point these out as such. These are things that students will encounter in speaking to native speakers (Skirble, 1979).

## Making Support Material

Once suitable material has been chosen, choose the scenes to use from it. (Unless the students are advanced, it is probably not possible to use every scene from the movie in one semester.) It is best to choose the scenes before starting to write the support material, since the aspects emphasized in a particular scene will depend in part on the background information students will need in the episodes that they will see later. It is important not to lose sight of the plot, since understanding the plot is a component of comprehension. Scenes that advance the plot tend to be more interesting and easier to understand for students at lower levels of listening ability than scenes that mainly develop characters.

Since there will be words that students do not know in the dialogue, it is often necessary to give them a list of these words and help them understand the meanings. There are various ways of handling this. Students can be given simply a list of words and their definitions. Vocabulary can also be presented as an exercise — for example, matching, multiple choice, or finding the definition of a word as it is used in a particular sentence. If the list of difficult words is long, it is a good idea to give it to students in the previous class, so that they have time to look it over before seeing the episode in class.

In choosing the words to define, it may be helpful to use a list of words that the students are expected to know, and define words that are not on the list, as well as words or expressions that have special or unusual meanings. (See Okutani [1981] for a 5000 word list or Proctor [1978] for a 2000 word list.) If students are not familiar with contractions, they may need to have contractions included on the list as well. It is not usually necessary to define words that are not important to understanding the main idea, since the emphasis should be on broad understanding rather than on the meanings of individual words.

Sometimes it is necessary to give the students background information before they see the episode itself. This should include relevant information from scenes that were not covered in the classroom, cultural points, explanations about new characters that appear in the scene and their relationships to the characters that have already appeared. This background is important in helping students with comprehension. If they are missing a piece of background information or do not understand the relationship between a new character and the old ones, they may have difficulty understanding what is going on in the scene. As with the vocabulary list or exercises, it is often helpful to give students the explanation of the background in advance.

As a rule, it is best to give students something particular to listen for each time they watch the episode. One technique is to give students true/false questions that they can answer only from visual information the first time they watch the scene. This seems to help familiarize students with the events that take place in the episode and allows them to concentrate on the dialogue itself in later viewings. For this section, a variety of types of questions can be asked, including questions about the emotions of different characters or about the events that students can understand without understanding the dialogue.

For the second and third viewings, questions can cover the content of the episode. In my experience, multiple choice questions are best for this section, unless students are advanced. Multiple choice questions allow students to concentrate on content without worrying about production. These questions can be divided into two types — questions that have explicit answers in the episode and questions whose answers are only implied. It may be helpful to intermediate students if the two types of questions are divided into separate sections. This allows students to make sure they understand the explicit content of the episode before they are required to deal with the implications.

Another type of exercise that can be used is dictation, if facilities are available for students to make individual audio recordings. All or part of the episode can be transcribed, and blanks left for students to fill in. Since the emphasis should not be on understanding individual words but on the overall meaning, it is best to choose new vocabulary words or words and phrases on which the main idea hinges. This type of exercise can also be used to emphasize reductions or contractions and give students practice in listening for and understanding them.

It is a good idea to conclude with an exercise that summarizes the episode as a whole. A cloze exercise in which students fill in blanks in a summary of the scene is one way of accomplishing this. Single words, phrases, or entire sentences can be left blank. (There are two types of cloze exercises. In the classic cloze, blanks replace words at certain intervals, often every fifth or sixth word. In the modified cloze, blanks replace key words or phrases. The latter type of exercise is better for emphasizing content.) Another type of exercise is an organization exercise, in which students arrange a list of statements in the order that they occurred in the scene. In later lessons, students can be asked to write a summary of the episode, using the content questions as a basis.

In some cases, homework, such as a supplementary reading, a composition, or a report, based on the episode can be assigned. If appropriate, ask students to predict what will happen next or how a particular problem will be resolved. When they see the next episode, they compare what they predicted with what happens. This stimulates interest because it gives students an "investment" in the content of the next episode (Bamford, 1983).

Of course, this is only a partial list of exercises that can be used with video material. These exercises emphasize comprehension of the main idea and an understanding of the plot as a whole. If the goals of the class include learning about, for example, functions or gestures, other types of exercises are appropriate.

## Presenting the Lesson

Begin the class by giving a brief introduction to the content of the episode and letting students know what is expected of them. It may be a good idea at this point to read the list of vocabulary words aloud, since students may not recognize the pronunciation of the words. Before letting the students watch the episode, it is best to go over the questions they will be expected to answer after that viewing. This gives them an idea of what the episode will be about, which seems to improve students' comprehension of the material (Cervantes and Noji, 1984). "Those situations in which we listen best even as native speakers are those in which we want to listen and in which we have something meaningful to listen for" (Snow and Perkins, 1979:56). Yet language students are often expected to listen to material without any purpose and without knowing what to expect.

After going over the answers to the questions in the first section, play the segment again one or two more times, and give the students time to answer the questions. For lower-level students, it may be helpful to students to go over the questions that have explicit answers in the scene before they attempt to answer the questions that require them to make inferences and draw conclusions. Last, students work on an exercise that gives them a summary of the whole scene, such as a cloze or organization exercise. If students depend too much on the previous exercises to do this final one, it may be better to require them to do it without looking at the previous exercises.

After showing the individual episodes of a movie over the course of a semester, I used one class period to show the entire movie, including the scenes that had not been covered in class. I felt that this was useful in cases where the movie was seen over a long period of time, because it helps students grasp the story of the entire movie.

## Conclusion

For EFL teachers, authentic video provides a motivating and vital way to experience listening comprehension as a total process within a meaningful context. Especially in a situation, as in Japan, where opportunities to hear authentic English used in a wide variety of settings and situations are rare, teachers should make good use of the opportunities that video provides.

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## Appendix

This is an example of a lesson that I made for The Miracle Worker for students in a women's junior college. I covered the movie in seven ninety-minute lessons, of which this is the first. In this scene, Annie arrives at the Kellers' home and is introduced to Helen's family and then to Helen. In addition to the exercises here, there was a dictation exercise, where students filled in blanks in a transcription of the dialogue.

### The Miracle Worker — Episode 1

***Vocabulary***

Match the words on the left with their definitions on the right.

1. ____ teens
2. ____ suitcase
3. ____ flowers (of civilization)
4. ____ agreeable journey
5. ____ trunk
6. ____ upstairs
7. ____ breeze

a. pleasant trip
b. the finest parts
c. on an upper floor
d. a big box for holding clothes while traveling
e. a flat box for carrying clothes while traveling
f. a light, gentle wind
g. the years of life from 13 to 19

***Characters***

**Helen Keller** — a blind, deaf child

**Katherine (Katie) Keller** — Helen's mother

**Captain Arthur Keller** — Helen's father

**James (Jimmy) Keller** — Helen's half-brother

**Annie Sullivan** — a woman who has come from the North to be Helen's teacher

**Viney** — the Kellers' maid

***Background***

It is 1887. Captain and Mrs. Keller live in the State of Alabama, in the southern part of the United States. They have a blind, deaf daughter named Helen. They have many problems with her. They write to a school for blind people in Boston. They ask the school to send them a teacher for their daughter. The school sends one of their former students, Annie Sullivan. Annie has just arrived on the train. Mrs. Keller and Jimmy met her at the train station and are bringing her to the Keller's home, which is called Ivy Green.

***Visuals***

If the statement is true, write "T." If it is false, write "F."

1. The Kellers live in the city.
2. Annie seems happy to arrive.
3. Captain Keller comes out of the house to greet Annie.
4. Annie lets Captain Keller carry her suitcase.
5. Helen has light brown hair.
6. Helen wants to open Annie's suitcase.

***Multiple Choice Questions***

Choose the correct answer.

1. What does Mrs. Keller ask Annie?
   a. how old she is
   b. where she is from
   c. where her family is
   d. why she came to Alabama
2. Captain Keller greets Annie by asking her if she had _____.
   a. a pleasant trip
   b. money for her trip
   c. any brothers or sisters
   d. anything to eat on the train
3. What does Annie want to do?
   a. rest
   b. see Helen
   c. have something to eat
   d. return home to Boston
4. Why is Mrs. Keller letting Annie use the upstairs corner room?
   a. it is close to Helen's room
   b. it will be the warmest in the winter
   c. it is closest to the dining room
   d. it is the coolest in the summer
5. Why does Annie take the suitcase from Captain Keller?
   a. she is afraid he will break it
   b. she wants to show how strong she is
   c. she wants to be polite

d. she has something in it for Helen

6. Annie lets Helen know she is there by ______
   - a. touching her hand
   - b. speaking to her
   - c. dropping the suitcase
   - d. touching her face
7. Helen feels Annie's face because ______
   - a. she is angry at Annie
   - b. that is the only way Helen can "see" people
   - c. she already knows Annie
   - d. she likes Annie
8. Helen wants to ______
   - a. wear Annie's hat
   - b. open Annie's suitcase
   - c. hit Annie's suitcase
   - d. go to her own room
9. By taking Helen's hand and hitting the suitcase then raising Helen's hand, Annie is trying to ______.
   - a. show Helen who she is
   - b. show Helen she likes her
   - c. teach Helen to hit the suitcase and raise her hand
   - d. teach Helen to imitate her
10. Helen carries Annie's ______
    - a. coat
    - b. hat
    - c. suitcase
    - d. glasses

***Cloze Exercise***

Fill in the blanks.

Annie and Jimmy and Mrs. Keller arrive at the Keller's home. Captain $^{1}$ ______ meets them and welcomes Annie. Annie wants very much to $^{2}$ ______ $^{3}$ ______, but Helen is $^{4}$ ______ there, yet. Mrs. Keller tells Annie that she will have the $^{5}$ ______ $^{6}$ ______ $^{7}$ ______, because it gets the $^{8}$ ______ in the summer. Captain Keller tries to carry Annie's $^{9}$ ______, but she takes it away from him, saying that she has something in it for $^{10}$ ______. Helen comes out of the house, and Annie lets Helen know she is there by dropping her $^{11}$ ______. Helen wants to open Annie's suitcase, but first, Annie has her $^{12}$ ______ the suitcase twice and raise her $^{13}$ ______, in order to teach Helen to imitate her. Helen takes the suitcase and goes into the house.

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# 21. Introduction to CAI English Classes

Kenji Kitao

## Abstract

In this paper, I will discuss the reasons why we should be interested in foreign language computer-assisted instruction (CAI), some misconceptions about computers and CAI held by foreign-language teachers, trends in CAI in TESOL in the United States and Japan, content of foreign language CAI, advantages and disadvantages of computers and CAI, foreign language CAI materials, individualizing instruction using computers, benefits of CAI, and how to start a CAI program. I will also offer some useful information resources related to CAI.

## Why Computer-Assisted Instruction (CAI)?

Why do we need to consider computer-assisted instruction (CAI) of English classes? There are many reasons.

Computers have developed rapidly over the past quarter century, and particularly over the past five years. They have become more powerful (that is, able to process and store much more data), faster, cheaper, smaller, easier to use, and more convenient. Personal computers are within the reach of even ordinary people. In recent years, equipment such as hard disks, CD-ROMs, laser disks, and printers used with computers has also developed rapidly. Using these, a computer program can handle sound, pictures and video along with characters.

"Multi-media" is a buzz word today in the field of computers. Using multi-media involves combining written text, sounds, still pictures, and video using computers and computer networks. This means that the world of computers is getting closer to the world of human beings. As the hardware develops, computer displays become more realistic and cheaper.

Various computer networks have been connected and have become more convenient. There are many local, commercial and academic computer networks. More and more college professors and business people are connected to the Internet, making it possible to communicate with people all over the world. On many academic and commercial networks, there are "lists" for EFL teachers and students, forums where interested people discuss various issues by writing messages that are sent by computer to all the people registered with the list. Anyone with an account on any network can be connected with people with the same interests.

Computers are becoming more compatible with one another. With the development of an operational system called Windows, we can use the same software on different types of computers, such as IBM, NEC and Fujitsu. Even Ms-Dos machines and Macintosh are getting more compatible, and there are some types of software which will run on both machines. Using an operational system called Dos V, any computer, even one not designed to use Japanese, can handle Japanese characters. With competition among computer companies becoming greater, it is possible to get a better computer at a lower price, and still have a computer compatible with others.

There is more and better commercial software on the market. There is also shareware, which users pay only a small fee to use, and freeware, which is free. They are available through networks organizations, and books.

Computers are becoming more common. As the price of computers decreases, more people have their own computers at home. Some people own several computers, and some carry laptop computers and work while commuting. Even some students have their own computers at home and write papers for classes. There are more computers in offices and schools. Many teachers use word processing programs to write exams, handouts for classes and meetings, and their academic papers. In addition, handouts for conference presentations are seldom written by hand or typed. Because computer education is now required in schools, all elementary schools, and junior and senior high schools have computers these days.

People have found different ways to use computers. Some people use them to play games. Some use them as word processors to write. Some use spread sheet programs to keep records and manipulate data. Some use them to study different subjects. Some make programs for their own use. Some use dictionaries, encyclopedias, and other reference works on computer to look up information. Some use them for communicating with others and exchanging information. Some people subscribe to computer discussion lists. Some use computers to search for information in different libraries all over the world, find useful computer programs or even connect to computers all over the world and use them as their own computers. Some use them to obtain information from databases. They can, for example, read newspaper articles published all over the world or check the stock market. They can search for newspaper articles written on a certain topic or date. They can search for journal articles on a certain topic. There are many, many ways to use computers, and it is not exaggerating to say that every person who uses computers is using them differently.

Last but not least, as a reason to discuss CAI, all elementary schools and junior and senior high schools in Japan are required to have computer classes for all students now. All those schools have computers, and it is necessary to consider the best ways to use them.

## Misunderstandings about Computers and CAI

Even though people encounter computers more and more in their daily lives, there is still a lot of misunderstanding about computers and what they are capable of doing.

Some people exaggerate what computers are capable of. For example, some people believe computers can do anything quickly and accurately, and that computers can do anything easily without work or effort by humans. Eventually some people think computers will take the place of teachers and teach students. Some people are hoping that computers will someday do all the work they do not like to do.

In contrast, some people do not believe that computers are useful. They believe work done by people is much better than work done by computers. Many people, particularly older people, do not understand computers and are not interested in trying to do so. Some people think that computers and CAI are a great amount of expense for little return.

Some people think that because computers will be more powerful, faster, cheaper, convenient and easier to use in the future, it is better to wait until their development stops to get involved with using computers.

Some people think that only computer experts or experts in CAI should use computers in language teaching, and other teachers should carry on ordinary instruction.

Some people believe that learning by computer is not really learning at all. They think that it is mainly playing. They believe that students should learn using books and notebooks. They do not believe that people can learn without reading books and writing with a pen.

Some people are afraid that students will not learn using a computer, because the computer does the work for them. For example, a computer can check spelling and some grammar, so students do not need to learn spelling and grammar. They need to learn only how to use different software to do work for them.

In contrast, some people believe that soon students will no longer use books and notebooks to study. They can learn better, faster, easier, more accurately and more enjoyably with a computer. If there is a computer, people do not need anything else to study.

I do not think that any of these points of view are entirely correct. However, many people do believe some of them.

## Trends in TESOL CAI

The largest organization for teachers of English as a second/foreign language (TESOL) based in the United States has an annual international conference every spring. At their 1983 conference in Toronto, more than ten percent of the presentations were on CAI. Most presentations were programs made by teachers for Apple computers using BASIC. There was also some commercial software, mainly drills with multiple-choice questions or the cloze type resembling computerized drill books (Kitao, S. K., 1991).

TESOL has a special interest group called Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) for teachers interested in using computers. The special interest group hosted a symposium in 1983, and since then it has hosted sessions on English CAI and software fairs at the annual TESOL conventions (Kitao, 1993e). The group has collected useful information on CAI and published *TESOL CALL Interest Section Software List 1993*.

In many American schools, CAI makes use of personal computers. Many teachers have developed software, particularly using hypercards on Macintosh. There are many freeware and shareware programs in the United States, and the CALL interest group distributes them for a nominal fee. Most of this software is designed for self-study, but not for drills of grammar and vocabulary. They put more emphasis on games and simulations, and on productive language skills, speaking and writing. Questions that users answer do not necessarily have one right answer, but several answers are accepted, or there may be no one single correct answer (Kitao, S. K., 1993).

There are many programs related to conversation, including programs which involve listening, speaking, recording, comparing voices, and reading and writing along with listening and speaking. There are many educational games and simulations. Some recent programs have both English and students' native languages. Multimedia software is getting more common and cheaper. It is on Windows or OS2, or a stack of hypercards.

Multi-media software, both teacher-made and commercial, is the core of educational software. Hard disks and CD-ROM have become less expensive, and many people use them for education. Good multi-media software programs cost a few thousand dollars, with the cost of a site license varying based on the number of computers connected. A recent trend is depending more on the use on networks than on stand-alone computers.

The use of E mail is getting more common in schools, and more teachers are using E mail for correspondence. Most teachers interested in CAI are on line, and they can exchange information. The Internet is getting more common than Bitnet now.

With the development of CD-ROM, concordances are becoming more common and cheaper, and their use is getting more attention. There are dictionaries and encyclopedias on CD-ROM.

## Trends of CAI in Japan

Hardware is developing rapidly, and even specialists have a hard time keeping up with its development. Hard disks and CD-ROM are highly developed and have become cheaper. It is common for a personal computer to be sold for less than half the price today that it was sold for a year ago. This makes it possible for more people to have computers that can handle very large files that include sound, pictures, and video.

Commercial educational software is still not well developed. Good software is very expensive. There is not a wide variety of educational software, and much of it is drill oriented. There are not many programs that allow students to be creative using a computer.

There is relatively little information available on language teaching through CAI, though there is starting to be more and more (Doshisha Daigaku Johoshori Kyodo Kenkyu Team, 1992; Kitao, S. K., 1992; Kitao, K., 1993a). The study group of English CAI published *Hajimete no CAI: Yoriyoi eigo kyoiku o motomete* [Introduction to CAI: Seeking Better English Education] (Edasawa et. al., 1992). The Language Laboratories Association (LLA) has had special meetings on CAI. The Fourth CAI conference, which was held at Doshisha University in February 1993, had more than 40 presentations, mainly about teacher-made programs, and about 260 people from all over Japan attended. Papers based on some of those presentations were published in *Computer riyo no gaikokugo kyoiku: CAI no doko to jissen* [Foreign Language Education Using Computers: Trends and Practice in CAI] (Nozawa, Shimatani, and Yamamoto, 1993). The CALL Special Interest Group (CALL-SIG) of the Japan Association of Language Teachers (JALT) had a special conference on writing in September 1993 and its proceedings were published (Kluge, et al., 1994). The theme of the LLA annual conference in August 1994 was multi-media. Its Kansai Chapter published *LLA Kansai Shibu Shuroku No. 5: Multi-media to Gaikokugo Kyoiku* [LLA Kansai Chapter Collected Papers No. 5: Multimedia and Foreign Language Education] (LLA Kansaishibu, 1994). The Japanese Universities Association for Computer Education (Shijokyo) has an annual conference in September, and some of the presentations are on language teaching. The July issue of their journal (Vol 3, No. 1) was a special issue on language teaching CAI. The Institute of Languages and Cultures at Kyushu University hosted the Japan and Korea International Symposium in October

1994, and its theme was "21 Seiki no Gaikokugo Kyoiku no Tenbo: Multi-media Jidai no Gaikokugo Kyoiku o Kangaeru [Prospects of Foreign Language Education in the 21st Century: Considering Foreign Language Education in the Multi-media Age]. The conference emphasized foreign language CAI, international computer networks and computer databases. More and more people are interested in and involved with foreign language CAI in Japan.

Many schools are interested in starting language teaching CAI programs. They may have facilities and equipment, but many of them do not have appropriate software or trained personnel.

Schools usually do not have enough people, equipment, and money to develop their own foreign language programs. In many cases, they do not have a large enough budget to buy enough copies of software for instruction. Unfortunately, there are problems with copyright violation in schools.

Many people believe multi-media CAI programs are better than simple programs. Though they do have advantages, multi-media programs are less flexible, less adaptable for students, and harder to use.

Hardware is developing very quickly, and software developers, who try to follow hardware development, are about two years behind. Many teachers are struggling to develop CAI programs. Many teacher-made programs have been introduced, but there is not much information available on the effectiveness of different types of CAI instruction.

## Computer Assisted Instruction (CAI) in Language Teaching

There are many ways to use computers for English language teaching. First of all, teachers can use them to prepare for classes. They can use a word processing program to write teaching materials and tests. They can use dictionaries, encyclopedias, etc., available on the computer as resources to help them prepare materials. Computer networks are also useful for getting teaching materials, exchanging them with other teachers, and getting new ideas or suggestions for handling particular problems. Teachers can use commercial databases to obtain teaching materials.

Computers can also be used for administering classes. They can be used to give assignments, analyze the results of students' work, and to keep attendance and other records. They can be used to keep grades, do statistical analyses of grades, and evaluate the class as a whole as well as individual students. This type of use is called "computer managed instruction (CMI)."

Computers can also be used to make classes more effective. There are two ways to use them (Kitao, 1994c). One way is for the teacher to present pictures, videos, and written text with or without sound. The presentation can be programed in advance or handled manually. Computers make it easier to make slide presentations, since random access is possible. A floppy camera can be used to take pictures on a special floppy disk. The pictures can be shown on a screen or a computer. Teachers can put photos on a photo CD and show them on computers. We can handle multiple media at the same time with a computer, and it is easier to handle a computer than handling a slide projector and a tape recorder at the same time.

The other way to use computers is to have students use the computers themselves, working individually — this is actually computer-assisted instruction. The computer provides materials to study and students can interact with the computer, that is, they have a library and a tutor. They can work on drills, tutorials, games, and simulations. They can work by themselves or with classmates in pair work or group work. Interaction between/among students is as important as that with a computer in learning. Students can work at a computer during the class, doing assignments, reviewing, or even preparing for the class. Using computers allows students to work at their own pace. Slower workers can catch up, and advanced students can do extra assignments.

Computers are also useful for teaching composition. Students can use a word processing program to write their compositions. The teacher can check their work, make corrections or suggestions, and/or show it to other students. Students read each other's compositions and give comments or make corrections (peer editing). It is possible to connect all the students' compositions and make a journal on the computer. In the United States, some teachers make newsletters using a desk-top publishing program with articles written by their students.

Students can use databases to read articles and work on making a vocabulary list, writing a summary of each article, or writing a report using the information they find. Nishinoh (1994) reported that after his students wrote reports based on information from databases, they liked to make presentations on the reports they had written, and also they enjoyed reading other students' reports on the computer screen.

## Advantages and Disadvantages of Computers

Using computers in education has both advantages and disadvantages.

### Advantages

Computers can present materials in various ways. They can use various colors, type faces, and sizes of letters. They can present a text word by word, phrase by phrase, line by line, question by question, page by page, etc. They can scroll lines of text up the screen, or change screens on demand or after a set time.

Computers are flexible and untiring. If the teacher wants to present only a few words or sentences on each page, it would be wasteful and expensive to do this on paper, but computers are an economical way to do it. Computers do not get tired and can repeat the same thing again and again without complaining. Whatever it is programmed to do, it can do over and over as often as necessary, and in whatever chunks it has been programmed to use.

Computers can give immediate feedback, if they are programmed to do so. They can confirm that an answer is correct, give the correct answer or a hint if the answer is incorrect, etc. Computers can rapidly and accurately check whether two strings of characters are the same, making them useful for checking spelling or answers.

Computers have a clock that is useful in various ways. The clock can be used to time the students' work, limit the amount of time allowed to read a passage or do an exercise or a set of exercises, etc.

Computers can keep records accurately. Teachers can keep track of individual or class scores and times.

Computers can calculate quickly and accurately. Teachers can get the total score, average, and standard deviation and can statistically analyze individual student and class results.

Computers can run various kinds of software. Users can run a word processing program, a spread sheet, databases, games, etc., all on the same computer. Students can use educational programs, games, simulations, dictionaries, etc., on the computer.

Computers can use information from floppy disks, hard disks, CD-ROM, laser disks, etc. This puts a great deal of information at the disposal of computer users.

Computer networks are also very useful. Networks allow the teacher to quickly give all students certain information and to obtain information from the students quickly, too. If the teacher's computer is connected with others on the phone, the student can obtain information from the teacher from home and submit papers or reports from home. In addition, computer users can communicate with people all over the world on other computers and use other computers to get information.

### Disadvantages

Computers have limitations on their memory, speed, methods of input and output, etc. More powerful computers have fewer limitations, but they still do have some limitations. They can process and store a certain amount of data. Processing information takes time. Input is potentially the most serious weakness. Information is usually input by typing it in, so to use a computer efficiently, it is necessary to know how to type. Data can sometimes be input using marked cards or sheets, and machines are available that read characters, but these processes are time-consuming and there are sometimes errors or problems.

Computers can only do what they are programmed to do. It is necessary to have proper software for a given task. Each kind of software has its own limitations. Some software is difficult to use, and some may not be able to do exactly what the user wants it to do. Computer programs are not usually tailored to a particular user's needs, and if they are, they are very expensive.

Computers need programs that were designed for them. Programs for other kinds of computers may not work. Even the so-called compatible computers are not 100 percent compatible. If a program is not designed for a given computer, it may have some limitations that prevent the user from doing exactly what he/she wants to do.

Computers are expensive, though they have become less and less so. They are still not as cheap as hand-held calculators or typewriters. Some computers cost less than ¥100,000, but they may not be powerful enough for people who use computers a lot. In addition, there is a great deal of additional equipment that is useful for computer users, such as CD-ROM driver, MO disks (which are similar to CD-ROMs, but on which the user can enter information), and bigger hard disks.

Computers break down, and they may have technical problems. It does not happen frequently, but a computer used over a long period of time is likely to eventually have technical problems with the hardware or the software. In the worst case, this may result in loss of data or other work.

In order to use a computer, a user has to know what commands to give the computer and how to respond to the computer. If the user does not know these, the computer will not function. It can be difficult to start using a new computer or computer program even if it has a good manual. Even after the user learns the basics, he or she needs to learn how to use the computer or program most effectively. New programs come out that are faster, better, more powerful, or more convenient, or which perform new functions, so users may feel that they need to change programs sometimes, which involves learning a new program. Learning to use a computer and software can take up a great deal of time and energy.

Computers are improving so fast that it is difficult to follow their development. Improvements and new equipment seem to come out every day. No matter how much time and energy is spent reading computer magazines to find out about new developments, it is impossible to know everything that is going on and to try everything new.

## Advantages and Disadvantages of CAI for Language Teaching

### Advantages

CAI is good for motivating students to study English. Students are anxious to use computers. Many students are tired of traditional English classes and are interested in a new style of learning. When they use a computer, they feel that they can master English. They can study English with their own learning styles, and they can see the results of their learning. Students think materials are new and fresh if they are presented on computers, and they are often interested in even routine tasks such as learning to type. They seem to be willing to spend more hours and do more exercises on a computer than by hand (Kitao, 1993c). (See "Students' Evaluation of CAI English Classes" in this volume.)

Students can get different types of input using a computer. Using multi-media materials, computers can display written text and use sounds, still pictures, and video. Students feel things are more real and more easily understood. Through simulation and other techniques, computers can present abstract things in a concrete and easily understood way. They also have access to various types of aids, including dictionaries, pictures, graphs of intonation, and voice recordings.

Learning can be individualized using computers. Students can study materials related to their individual goals and what they need or are interested in, with the appropriate difficulty level and at their own pace. Computers can analyze the problems of each student, and the teacher can help individual students with their problems based on the analysis (Kitao, 1994b). (See "Individualizing English Instruction Using Computers" in this volume.)

It is also possible to do programmed instruction using a computer. Students use minimum step programmed materials, with each level slightly more advanced than the previous one. They use what they learned in one step to do the next one (Ishihara, 1992).

CAI can overcome barriers of time and place. If a school has a satellite system of computer laboratories, students can study English at various places on campus at any time. If the school has a network of computer laboratories, students can use the same materials wherever they are working. Students can study at home if they have a computer that can connect to their school's computer. Computers can be connected among schools, and teachers can use them to share materials and information. Teachers can get materials from commercial companies, networks, or databases, even from foreign countries. It is possible to communicate with people in many foreign countries for a nominal charge. Note-type computers are getting cheaper, and some schools are lending them to students, so that they can take them home and use them at any time.

Students can use computers to build on the work they have done. For example, they can use a word processing program to write a composition, to edit it before they turn it in to the teacher, and then to change the composition based on their teacher's comments. The computer allows them to make corrections easily so that they do not have to retype the final draft. Students can also use computers to work on projects with their classmates, such as a class newspaper, and classmates can comment on each other's work and make changes.

There are computer programs to check spelling and grammar. These allow students to avoid mechanical errors and pay more attention to more substantial matters.

### Disadvantages

CAI, of course, requires computers and software as well as other equipment, all of which are expensive. A special classroom is also necessary, along with technicians to keep the computers working properly. Since students often have trouble, assistants are also necessary to help students with the problems they may have. If many classes are using the computer room, scheduling is likely to be difficult (Kitao, 1994a).

No matter how simple computers and software are, students need to learn a great deal to use them. Just learning to use the computers and software often requires time and energy before students can even begin to use them to study a subject. Input is usually from a keyboard, so students need to learn to type fairly well before they can use computers effectively.

Some students can never really adjust to using computers. They are never comfortable with them, and these students often make mistakes.

CAI is not most effectively used for traditional classes. To use computers most effectively, it is necessary to develop new methods and materials that are specifically for computers, rather than just transferring materials from a book to a computer. It may also be necessary to change the way students are evaluated.

It is also necessary to train teachers. They need to understand the theory behind CAI as well as how to use computers. They have to learn the best methods for teaching classes with computers. Teachers can take courses on CAI, attend conferences and orientations, and share ideas with other teachers.

There are many limitations of equipment and facilities, and some teachers may not be able to do what they want to do. Once computer laboratories are established, it is not possible to re-equip them for several years. During that period, hardware and software developments will occur. It is necessary to make good decisions about what the computers will be used for and to buy the most appropriate hardware and software for those purposes, which preferably can be upgraded easily when technology changes.

## CAI Materials

CAI materials are very diverse. They include drills, tutorials, games, simulations, and information databases. Good CAI materials are easy to use, have a clear purpose, are enjoyable, can be used for self study (without a teacher's help), and are based on instructional theory.

There are some potential problems with CAI programs. Programs can be used by certain computers only. Some of them need special equipment such as a CD-ROM, a laser disk, a soundboard, a videoboard, or a speaker. Materials are usually expensive, and good materials are not easy to make. Simple programs are often unsatisfactory, and complicated ones are too difficult to make. Making computer materials requires a knowledge of developing English teaching materials and also of computer programming. CAI materials are more complicated than textbooks, so it is difficult to make good ones.

Even choosing materials is not easy. Because of the expense and difficulties involved, it is very important to buy materials that are appropriate for the students and for the goals of the class. I have discussed the issues involved in selection of computer materials elsewhere (Kitao, 1992c; Kitao, 1992d). While materials appropriate for college students are still limited, they are gradually being developed (e.g., Kitao, Kitao, Shimatani, and Ota, 1993).

## Individualizing Instruction

One problem in English instruction is that students have a variety of interests and levels of English proficiency. Their learning speeds and learning styles also vary. CAI can help teachers to help individual students meet their own goals at their own pace. I believe that this is one of the most important reasons to use CAI.

Individualized instruction is a philosophy of education that emphasizes giving appropriate instruction to each student. Teachers can provide materials that meet different goals, employ different methods, and have different content and levels of difficulty. Students can work at their own pace. This means that students are the center of learning, and teachers help them learn. It requires students to take more responsibility for their learning, to learn how to learn. In individualized instruction, students should be evaluated on whatever they have learned. This is very different from traditional teaching, and it is necessary to study methods, techniques, and materials for individualized instruction and to train teachers to do it.

CAI has the potential to enhance individualized instruction without requiring an increase in the number of teachers. Computers can help students learn, because they present materials better than textbooks do, and they keep records.

In order to have good individualized instruction, we need facilities, machines and equipment, materials, and personnel to help students.

Some of the major advantages of individualized instruction is that it encourages active learning, uses the results of previous learning, promotes learning with comprehension, and allows students to see their progress.

Some drawbacks of individualized instruction are that it is expensive, it requires teacher training, and it increases the teacher's workload.

Individualizing a whole program of instruction is very difficult. However, it is possible to partially individualize instruction, for example, by allowing students to work at their own pace or to choose the content of the materials they want to study, the method by which they want to learn, or the level of difficulty of the materials they use. In my experience, students are happy with even partially individualized instruction, and it is more effective than traditional teaching (Kitao, 1993c; Kitao, 1994b). (See "Individualizing English Instruction Using Computers" in this volume.)

## Benefits of CAI

Using CAI has a number of benefits.

1. When using a computer, students must study actively. They cannot just passively listen to the teacher, as they do in a lecture class. They must think and learn with the assistance of a computer.
2. Students and teachers can see how well students are learning and what their problems are. Teachers can adjust the class to students' learning.
3. Instruction can be individualized, and each student can learn according to his/her ability, both in the difficulty level and the pace. Students can learn about subjects in which they are interested with their own learning styles.
4. Learning with a computer is inherently more interesting, and stu-

dents do not get bored as easily.

5. In my experience, students can process more materials with a computer than with a textbook in the same amount of time.

So far, my students have been, for the most part, satisfied with the results of their learning in my CAI classes. These classes have had fewer absences and dropouts than other classes, and the students seemed to make progress in learning English (Kitao, 1990-1992; Kitao, 1991a; Kitao, 1991b; Kitao, 1992a; Kitao, 1992b; Kitao, 1993b; Kitao, 1993d; Kitao, Ishihara, and Yamauchi, 1992).

## How to Start a CAI Program

The best way to learn about starting a CAI program is to consult with friends and colleagues who are familiar with computers. It is very difficult to start using a computer using only manuals or books. It is more difficult to make software for your computers even you have a programmer to make programs (Kitao, 1990-1992; Kitao, 1991a; Kitao 1991b; Kitao, 1992a).

It is also a good idea to go to computer business shows to learn what computers can do, what kinds of software are available, and what you can do with them. We did this at the beginning of our CAI research project, which was very successful (Doshisha Daigaku Johoshori Kyodo Kenkyu Team [The Study Group of Computer Education Research at Doshisha University], 1992).

It is also important that you actually try out computer programs. You can go to the LLA conference, for example, and see what other people have done. Exhibits of computer software help you understand what you can do with certain software. While these exhibits are useful for getting an idea of what software is capable of, they will not provide enough information about an overall program. One way to learn about overall programs is to visit universities that already have CAI programs and see what they are doing. In preparing to organize the CAI program at Doshisha University, faculty members visited several other colleges, and people from other colleges have visited Doshisha to observe CAI classes.

TESL-L is a large list for teachers of English to speakers of other languages. There are sub-groups such as TESLCA-L for CAI, TESLFF-L, TESLIE-L, TESLIT-L, TESLJB-L, and TESLMW-L. You can subscribe to these free. You can also subscribe to TESL-EJ, an electronic journal on TESOL, which is also free. If you have any questions about issues related to CAI and language teaching, you can send your question to the list and usually obtain information you need fairly quickly. (See the appendix.)

Commercial databases are also useful. NEXIS covers many newspapers from all over the world, and some broadcasts as well. It costs only ¥50,000 per month for unlimited use. Many universities are already subscribing. Nishinoh (1994) has already developed some mini databases of newspaper articles on the topics his students were interested in, and he has used them to teach the reading of English newspapers.

Nikkei Telecom covers Japanese English newspapers. There are also commercial networks such as Niftyserve and PC-VAN, which you can use for E mail and some databases and software. You can connect to the Internet as well. Tom Robb of Kyoto Sangyo University and Yoko Takagi of Teleclass International have had students exchange letters with foreign pen pals. (See appendix.) Mr. Robb offers tips on having students communicate by E mail in TESL-L, and Ms. Takagi is helping to find teachers who would like to participate in such a project.

If you are working for a college, you can open an account at the computer center of a large national university, such as Kyushu University, Osaka University, Kyoto University, or Nagoya University, where you can use Bitnet or the Internet. Many colleges have workstations which are connected with the Internet, through which teachers can connect to many computer networks. These can connect you to many computers throughout the world. You can transfer files from many, many computers. If you are a member of LLA, you can open the account at NACSIS, and you can use it for E mail (Ozeki, 1994).

Judging from my seven years of experience in developing English CAI programs at Doshisha University, it is a good idea to make a team to develop a program, including developing and/or choosing materials, and it is necessary to include specialists on hardware and software. Without their help, it is difficult to use computers to teach English effectively. It is also necessary to have administrative support and a budget for maintenance of hardware and software, including purchasing.

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## Appendix

### Useful Information

**Lists**

- TESL-EJ (electronic journal on TESOL)
  - listserv@cmsa.berkeley.edu
    - sub teslej-l kenji kitao (Use your own name)
- TESL-L (list for TESOL)
  - listserv@cunyvm.cuny.edu
    - sub tesl-l kenji kitao (Use your own name)
    - set tesl-l digest
- TESL-STUDENT LIST (list for students of English)
  - listserv@latrobe.edu.au
    - sub XXXXX-SL
      - CHAT-SL, EVENT-SL, MOVIE-SL, MUSIC-SL, SPORT-SL

**Organizations**

- CAI
- JACET (Japan Association of College English Teachers)
  - (Some chapters have study groups on CAI.)
- JALT CALL-SIG (Japan Association of Language Teachers: Computer Assisted Language Learning Special Interest Group)
  - Phone 052-799-2089 David Kluge
- LLA (Language Laboratory Association)
  - (Some chapters have study groups on CAI.)
- Multimedia Study Group ozeki@isc.chubu.ac.jp
  - Shuji Ozeki Niftyserve MAG00211
  - Masatoshi Sugiura Niftyserve MHB02601
  - (Teachers interested in multi-media or CAI are exchanging ideas and information. If you have a fax and just want to get information, you can join for an annual fee of ¥3,000.)
- NACSIS (National Center for Science Information Systems
  - Phone 03-3942-2351 Fax 03-3942-6900
- Shiritsu Daigaku Joho Kyoiku Kyokai (Japan Universities Association for Computer Education (JUCE: Shijokyo)
  - Phone 03-3261-2798 Fax 03-3261-5473

Teleclass International Yoko Takagi ytakagi@apic.or.jp
(This is good for those interested in have correspondence with other classes throughout the world.)

TESOL 1600 Cameron Street, Suite 300, Alexandria, VA 22314
Phone 703-836-0774

**Commercial Database**

NEXIS & Nikkei Telecom
Nekkei Sogo Hanbai
Phone 03-3256-2260 06-202-0931

**Useful E Mail Addresses**

Thomas Robb trobb@cc.kyoto-su.ac.jp
(He is involved in TESL-L, TESL-EJ and TESL student lists.)

Haruo Nishinoh Niftyserve GBA01431
hnishino@doshisha.ac.jp
(He has used NEXIS database to teach reading English newspapers.)

Kenji Kitao kkitao@doshisha.ac.jp
Phone 0774-65-7070

**Funds for CAI**

Kokusai Communication Kikin
2-3-1 Nishishinjyuku, Shinjyuku-ku, Tokyo 163-03
Phone 03-3347-7094
research, hosting international conferences
attending international conferences,
social and cultural activities

Denki Tsushin Fukyu Zaidan
Nishishinbashi Wako Bldg. 5F
1-6-11 Nishishinbashi, Minatoku, Tokyo 105 Phone 03-3580-3411
attending international conferences

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# 22. Developing English CBI Programs at Doshisha University[1]

Kenji Kitao

## Abstract

Computer-based instruction (CBI) can be divided into two parts – computer-assisted instruction, which involves students directly using computers to study, and computer-managed instruction, which involves the teacher using computers to grade assignments, analyze the results, and so on. In the fall of 1988, Doshisha University started a CBI program with typing classes. The goals of these CAI courses were 1) teaching English with computers, 2) allowing teachers and students unfamiliar with computers to carry out CBI classes, 3) covering the same content and amount as regular English classes, 4) using programmed instruction and giving individual counseling, 5) giving timely feedback to students, 6) emphasizing practice outside of the class, and 7) making students active in learning.

In this paper, I have discussed the history of CBI in the United States and Japan. I have described also the development of such a program at Doshisha University. I described how faculty members investigated programs at other universities; how Doshisha University budgeted for the project; how the courses were organized; how we made programs and teaching materials; and how the program grew from its small beginnings. I also listed the advantages and disadvantages of CAI that we have found through these experiences.

## Introduction

As computers have rapidly become cheaper, more common and more sophisticated, they have also become more widely available in schools. Computer education will be required in junior high and senior high schools within the next few years. Teacher training includes computer training, and all colleges have to have computers for teacher training.

As more computers become available in schools, they have to be used for instruction itself, because they are too expensive to be used just for computer education courses such as courses training students in programming or teaching them how to use commercial software for office work. Therefore, computer-assisted instruction (CAI) is becoming more and more important in schools.

In this paper I will briefly review the history of CAI in both the United States and Japan, and I will explain the English computer based instruction (CBI) materials which we have developed over the past four years and discuss their theoretical background. CBI includes CAI programs, which students use to assist them in studying; and computer managed instruction (CMI) programs, which grade students' answers, analyze the grades and times statistically and obtain the mean scores for the first trial and the second trial (and their percentages) and the mean time of the whole class. CMI programs also list the students' results in the order of their ID numbers, their scores and the time they required to finish the assignment. They can also do item analyses for multiple-choice questions, and list the errors of individual students on individual fill-in questions. They can sum up the results of files. These results can be used in assisting individual students. Though we have developed CBI only for English grammar, reading and writing so far, this system can be used for any subject, including other foreign languages and even classes offered in Japanese.

## The History of CAI

### In the United States

The history of the use of computers to assist teaching is a long one. Pressey (1926 & 1927) published papers on a machine which taught, tested and graded. Skinner (1954) published a paper on programmed instruction which formed the foundation for computer-assisted instruction (CAI). The U.S. navy used computers when it realized that it was important to train new soldiers as quickly as possible when they had to send them to the Suez Canal during the crisis in 1956. With military assistance in the 1960s, CAI was developed by large institutions, including the University of Illinois, where PLATO I-V were developed. Many teaching materials were developed there and some were even exported. However, large computers were available only in a few large facilities such as universities or research institutes, and they were very expensive. Therefore not many people could use CAI in those days.

Americans have had a tendency to emphasize individualized instruction, which means instruction has to be suited to a student's abilities, goals, interests, and learning style. Instruction in American institutions is more individualized than in Japanese institutions. In the 1970s, individualized instruction in foreign languages, which varied goals, content, and pace according to the individual student's needs and abilities, was studied (Altman, 1972; Altman and Politzer, 1971; Disick, 1975; Grittner and Laleike, 1975; Lange, 1972; Logan, 1973). This increased the demand for foreign language CAI. Mini-computers and personal computers became available, and prices became low enough that their use had spread by the end of 1970s.

In the 1980s, personal computers became more widely available, and they were used more frequently in schools. Because of this, more progress was made in foreign language CAI, including English CAI for non-native speakers of English. At the 1983 TESOL Conference in Toronto, there were many presentations on CAI using commercial software and teacher-made software (Kitao, 1983), and the 1991 TESOL Conference had some presentations on multi-media CAI using CD-ROM or laser disks (Kitao, 1991; Kitao and Kitao, 1991).

## In Japan

CAI has been used in Japan since about 1963 (Okamoto, 1988). CAI was done using large- and middle-size computers until 1980 (Okamoto, 1988). Computers and personal computers have been used in business, including CAI for training employees, much more than in schools. The quantity and quality of English CAI programs using personal computers have increased a great deal since 1985. I attended the CAI & Instructional Media Show in 1989 and 1991 and found that most of the visitors to the show were people involved in training for business, and only about 18% of the visitors were from schools, of whom the majority were computer education, science and mathematics teachers. There appears to be a trend in this show toward multi-media CAI which included words, pictures, photos, sound, and video using CD-ROM. My colleagues and I are convinced that the CAI used in schools will be multi-media CAI within a few years (Genma et al., 1992).

Some CAI materials for elementary schools, junior high schools and senior high schools were displayed at the show, but they were very primitive and were mainly drill oriented instruction. However, some multi-media CAI English materials were displayed, and I have heard that some new sophisticated English materials are being developed. Since English teaching materials for college students are more complex, CAI English materials for the college level are more difficult to make. Some college teachers have tried to develop some CAI English materials for individualized instruction (Shimatani and Ota, 1991; Taira, 1987) and for the classroom (Harrison, 1986; Kobayashi, Yoshida, and Yoshida, 1987; Nishitani, 1988; Nozawa, 1990).

## CBI at Doshisha University[2]

When I began using of the computer at Doshisha University in the late 1970s, the computer was not powerful or convenient. I had to go to the computer center to punch computer cards and read them in myself. There were only about two staff members there, and they could not or would not assist me even when I had errors and did not understand what was wrong. In the early 1980s, the time sharing system (TSS) was adopted and at least one terminal was available in each building for research purposes. The computer has been replaced about every third year with a larger and more powerful one. The staff was increased and users could get unofficial assistance from some of them, even for programming. Until the late 1980s, the computer was used mainly by the School of Technology and school administration. Until that time, it was not used to assist students studying any subject.

### Investigating CAI at Kanazawa Kogyo University

Since CBI and CAI were considered to be very important in education, four foreign languages faculty members were sent in 1985 to investigate English CAI at Kanazawa Kogyo University, which had the most advanced CAI using a host computer. Kanazawa Kogyo University had a large room with many computer terminals. Students could go there any time to study for basic courses or standardized English tests, such as STEP tests. All CAI materials were made by teams composed of English professors, computer programmers, staff members from academic affairs, and computer majors. A large budget was allocated for CAI projects. CAI was used for many other courses in addition to English. The university was preparing to begin using personal computers for CAI rather than a host computer. Doshisha University did not have such facilities, personnel or money for CAI at that time.

### The Time Sharing System

When the Tanabe campus opened in 1986, two TSS (time sharing system) rooms were provided for future computer related education. They were divided by a movable wall and had 80 Hitachi 2020 terminals which were connected to a host computer. Those terminals can function as personal computers with 10 or 20 megabite hard disks. In 1990, another room with 85 lap-top computers which are also connected to the same host computer opened to train students who take teacher training courses, since computer education became required in teacher training. These are not necessarily ideal facilities and equipment for CAI, but they made it possible to start using CAI, and the major problem of facilities and equipment was taken care of.

### Budgeting for CBI[3]

In 1988, ¥5,000,000 (approximately $38,500) was budgeted to enhance education on the Tanabe campus, and ¥900,000 ($6900) was allocated to start English CBI classes. In 1989, ¥600,000 ($4600), and in 1990, ¥250,000 ($1900) was allocated for CBI from this fund. This was mainly for honoraria for programmers, and very little money was used to develop teaching materials for CBI. In 1990, the Doshisha University Research Fund became available and ¥600,000 ($4600) was allocated for materials, honoraria for developing teaching materials, training, traveling, equipment, stationary, books, software, postage, and presenting the results of research. From 1991, original fund stopped, but nine foreign-language instructors obtained ¥2,000,000 ($15,300) from the Doshisha University Computer Research Fund for developing more permanent CBI foreign language programs. Also three English instructors along with one CAI specialist obtained a ¥2,500,000 ($19,200) Doshisha University Research Fund grant for studying theoretical aspects of more effective English CBI. With these allocations and grants, the problem of budget was taken care of.

### Use of Computers in English Language Teaching

In the TSS rooms, computer programming and some classes that use statistical analysis packages are offered. English CBI classes are different from other classes, since we use a computer, computer terminals and programs to assist students in studying English. In other words, computers are used to increase the effectiveness of the classes, and the students do not study computers or computer programs. At this point, only English and German CBI courses are using computers to assist learning.

The computer-based instruction (CBI) English grammar program opened in the fall of 1988 with a typing program and 44 students in three classes, though the maximum enrollment was 25 per class. At Doshisha University, staff members of the computer center cannot be involved in teaching at all. They are not allowed to assist with programming, grading or anything related to the classes. They are responsible only for the maintenance of computers. Everything else, including programming and maintenance of software, is left to the users in either research or teaching. Academic Affairs assigns rooms and provides floppy diskettes. Several committees are responsible for different aspects of computer use and use of the TSS rooms. Sometimes each committee decides that a certain problem belongs to another committee. Moreover, instructors are not necessarily members of those committees, and many problems are never solved.

Commercial software for CBI classes was not available for Hitachi 2020 computers, and the staff of the computer center could not make programs for English CBI. However, we were fortunate enough to have two people who agreed to develop computer-assisted instruction (CAI) and computer-managed instruction (CMI) software for our computers and were able to get funding for those people. One of them was very familiar with BASIC language for the

Hitachi 2020 for CAI and FORTRAN language with a Hitachi host computer for CMI, which are not necessarily well known to many programmers. We have worked continuously for three years to improve many programs and teaching materials. We have made some programs with C language, and some programs can be used by Hitachi 2020 or NEC 98 series computers. Now our CBI system can be used to assist individual students in studying English more effectively (using words only, not sound or visuals) and to administer classes.

Our CBI English language classes were first offered in 1988, and they have become more and more popular since then. A large crowd of students showed up for CBI enrollment orientation in 1989, more came in 1990, and even more in 1991. Seventy-nine students enrolled in 1989 (36 in two grammar classes and 43 in two reading classes). In 1990, we increased the number of teachers from three to four, and 108 students enrolled (50 in two grammar classes and 58 in three reading classes). In 1991, 127 students enrolled (50 in two grammar classes, 54 in three reading classes, and 23 in a writing class). One German CBI class opened in the fall. We are now preparing to increase CBI English classes to seven and CBI German classes to three next year.

## Instructional Philosophy and Organization of English CBI at Doshisha University

### Goals

The goals of developing CBI English courses are 1) teaching English with the assistance of computers, 2) allowing teachers and students who are not familiar with computers to carry out CBI classes, 3) teaching the same content and amount as regular English classes for sophomores, 4) using programmed instruction and giving individual counseling, 5) giving timely feedback to students so they can use it for further study, 6) emphasizing practice outside of the class, and 7) making students active in learning. The three original CBI instructors agreed to these goals and use the same programs, but developed specific teaching materials for our class based on our individual instructional ideas.

Many teachers who use CAI to teach English seem to pay more attention to computers and programs than to the content of the English classes. In contrast, we have tried to make use of the advantages of computers to try to teach English more effectively. In order to do so, we have made simple CAI programs and some teaching materials and tried to increase the effectiveness of English instruction. Before we can establish the best CBI classes, we need to consider multi-media CBI classes in which we can use pictures, photos, video and sound as well as words.

## Outline of the Courses

**Introducing CBI courses.** We included English CBI courses such as grammar, reading, writing, listening and conversation as electives for sophomores. We published synopses of the CBI courses in the enrollment guidebook. We also had a meeting right before the enrollment to explain CBI courses to students who were considering enrolling in them. The maximum enrollment in each CBI course was 25, and if more students wanted to enroll, they had to participate in a lottery. Except in 1988, when the computer was only used in the courses during the fall semester, our courses used the computer for the entire school year. As more teaching materials have been made, students have been able to use the computers outside class time for practice. Since there are no commercial materials for Hitachi 2020 computers, we have used only teacher-made materials to avoid any copyright problems.

In our courses, students are not required to have any knowledge of computers or any typing skills. Anyone can take English CBI courses the same as they can take other English courses. We give an orientation during the first two classes. We have made a B5-size 14-

page manual for CBI courses, which has gone through many revisions. Using this manual, we can explain what the content of the class is, what the methods of study are, how evaluations are done, how to use computers, what the rules for using computers and the TSS rooms are, how typing is taught, and so on.

**Preparation for the course — Instructors.** Instructors need a minimum knowledge of computers, for example, how to use MS-Dos. There is a manual for instructors which explains what facilities are available, what instructions to give in the class, how to operate the computers, what programs are available, and how to make teaching materials. We also give an orientation to new teachers using the manual for instructors, so that they can understand how CBI classes work as well as how to give an orientation to their students. There are many things instructors have to know, and the manuals are very important. We have revised them many times, and they are well organized to help teachers prepare for and conduct CBI classes most effectively. In our experience, making a good manual is very important for students and instructors. Using it and having a smooth beginning is half the success of the course.

**Characteristics of materials.** After the two-period orientation, students continue to practice typing for another two periods. Then they practice with multiple-choice exercises, fill-in-the-blank exercises, error-correction exercises, or sentence completion exercises. Thus, exercises are graded according to the amount of typing they require students to do. Also students move from grammar exercises with little reading to reading exercises requiring more reading. I always give at least three different types of readings or exercises in order to provide some variety.

Materials are grouped according to the purpose and type of exercise. Students practice them in order to acquire certain skills and content is based on the programmed instruction. After I made many materials, I found that it was difficult to know how well each student was doing on each question, so I made achievement tests using some questions from the exercises. Thus, using the results of the achievement tests, I can estimate how well they have learned. Analyzing the results with grading, item analysis and error-listing programs (CMI), I can give advice to individual students.

After students finish an exercise, they see the number of questions, how many correct answers they gave for the first and second tries, the percentage of correct answers, and the time students required to finish. They write down the records on recording sheets. They are given the class average, and they can compare their results to it. They can also compare their previous results on similar exercises. In this way, they are informed of how well they are doing. They also receive information from me about how well they are doing and how they could do better in the future. In English CBI courses, students get much more information to help them improve than in their regular English classes.

I am making exercises for some standardized English exams, such as STEP, TOEFL, and TOEIC. Those are made to allow students to study by themselves with the tutorial, that is, students are given some information to study and then practice exercises. Clear instructions are given that allow students to study independently.

We have a file called a bulletin board in the computer all the time. Thus students can see instructions on what to do and how to do it, and the due date. I can give messages even outside the class in this way. They see the class results or assignments on this bulletin board.

**Dealing with variations.** Since students have studied English for at least seven years before these courses, their English proficiency varies a great deal. The time required to finish exercises varies even more. Therefore I have been making intermediate and elementary level materials, with differences in difficulty being based in part on the type of exercise. This allows the same passage to be used by students with different levels of proficiency by using different exercises. I have also made extra materials for advanced students to use.

## Facilities and Equipment

On the Tanabe campus, there is a Hitachi host computer, 80 Hitachi 2020 terminals in two rooms with a movable wall, and 85 lap-top Hitachi computers in another room. The Hitachi 2020 and lap-top computers are terminals to the host computer, but with connection to the host computer, they can also be used as personal computers with a 10 or 20 megabite hard disk.

Our CAI system works only with the Hitachi 2020. The Hitachi 2020 can process letters and graphics, but not photos, videos, or sound. It works as a 16-bit personal computer, but for someone accustomed to a modern personal computer, they feel it is very slow. Since all Hitachi 2020s are connected to the host computer, using a program developed by staff members of the computer center, an instructor can transfer all programs and teaching materials from his or her terminal to the host computer and students can transfer them from the host computer to their terminals. Students can also transfer their answer files from their terminals to the host computer. All of these operations are easy. However, if all the students transfer files at the same time, it takes a few minutes, and also if students are transferring files, the instructor cannot transfer a file.

The instructor can show his or her screen on the large projector, and also see the answer files students have finished. However the instructor cannot see a student's screen or show it on the large projector. Thus the Hitachi 2020s are not networked.

Even though the terminals are maintained by staff members of the computer center, we sometimes find problems with the terminals. Also, when advanced students have used the terminals in special ways without returning them to normal settings, students may find some problems with their terminals. In this case, we have to get assistance from staff members of the center.

## Programs

Based on our analyses of student responses to the materials and exercises developed, as well as their needs and interests, CAI and CMI software programs have been revised many times over the years.

### CAI Programs

We have made more than twenty CAI programs, and there now are three main types: a typing program and two types of programs that use multiple-choice questions and write-in questions (fill-in-the-blank, complete-the-sentence, etc.).

The principle of those three program types are the same. On the first screen, all programs can present the number of questions, the maximum time allowed to finish, the minimum score required, and how many times the file must be repeated if the student does not meet the time or accuracy requirements. Except on the typing program, the screen can also show whether hints and correct answers are provided. Then they present instructions and examples before the questions are displayed. The computer checks student answers against the answer(s) provided by the teacher. If they match, the student sees "very good" on the screen and goes on to the next question. If the answer is wrong, hints are offered and the student answers again. If the answer is still wrong, the computer presents the correct answer(s) and the student goes on to the next question. At the end of the file, students get a summary of their results: how many questions there were, how many were answered correctly, the percentage of correct answers for the first and second tries, and the total time spent doing the program.

The programs using write-in questions can be used for multiple-choice questions, but we cannot run the item-analysis program with the students' answers to the questions. By changing the teaching materials, we can run fill-in-the-blank, sentence completion, error correction, changing the order, etc.

As mentioned above, computers can be programmed with a maximum time students can spend finishing a file and a minimum score they must achieve. If students do not meet the specified requirements, they have to do the file again from the beginning.

For reading, we can specify the time students are allowed to spend reading the passage. If we specify a certain time, students have to spend that amount of time reading the passage and cannot go further until that amount of time has passed.

We also have programs for testing, which allow students to go backward and forward, changing their answers. The students are not given any hints or correct answers while they are working. When they finish, they get the same summary on the screen.

These programs show the number of questions, the maximum time, the minimum score, and how many tries are allowed in the upper left-hand corner. They also show which program, which file and which question the student is working on in the upper right-hand corner. Students can see whether they are working within the time limit, and the instructor can tell which material the student is working on.

The newest development is programs in which students can change the specifications, including the maximum time allowed, the minimum score required, how many times the file must be repeated if the requirements are not met, and whether hints and correct answers are provided. These programs are developed for student self-study.

After students get the feedback screen, they are asked whether they want the answer file sent to the host computer. If they type "Y," they send the file, and they cannot send the answer file again even if they do it again.

### CMI Programs

We have also developed four major CMI programs. We can get lists of the dates and times students work, the number of questions, the amount of time they spent, their scores for the first and second trials, their percentage correct and the number of times students worked on the files, all arranged according to the ID numbers of the students, from highest to lowest score and from shortest to longest time spent. We can also get a list of the students who did not work on the file. We also have an item analysis program, and a program which lists all the errors for individual students or individual questions. In addition, we have a program which sums up the results of files and shows the total scores, percentages and times. They are also sorted by score and time and show the list of files missing.

An instructor can use the CMI programs to show the results on the screen or on printouts. Using these programs, he or she can see how well the class is doing, individual students' problems, and the difficulty level of each question. He or she can give feedback to the class and individual students.

## Teaching Materials[4]

I have developed many exercises, including materials to develop typing, grammar, reading, writing, and vocabulary skills and knowledge about culture. I developed about 700 files made up of about 13,000 questions by the end of November, 1991. I have been developing tutorial materials as well as drills. Based on student responses, I am making elementary, intermediate and advanced-level materials and some TOEIC and TOEFL exercises which students can work on by themselves.

I have also made tests for the orientation and some printed materials which we use for the class. These CAI materials were used to check how well students had understood the orientation or materials they had studied by themselves.

Except for 35 files of TOEIC grammar instruction and exercises, all files, including instructions, questions, exercises and hints, are written in English. In this way students can be exposed to English and learn more English. It will help them establish the habit of thinking in English.

### Typing Materials

There are many typing materials. Students learn home position to habitualize their finger movements. They practice the right hand, left hand, and both hands on the middle row, then the second row, bottom row, and the top row. They practice with combinations of letters at the beginning, then nonsense words, and, as soon as possible, real English words.

Materials that combine typing and grammar require students to not only copy the letters or words that appear on the screen but to work on very easy grammar exercises and type whole sentences.

### Grammar Exercises

There are three main types of grammar exercises: multiple-choice, fill-in-the-blank and error correction. I made the multiple-choice questions first and then revised them into fill-in-the-blank, and then error correction exercises. I found that if there are two errors in the error correction exercises, they are too difficult, and students become too frustrated. With the programs we have, I can make exercises to correct scrambled sentences, to complete sentences, write sentences, etc. I made many questions for the STEP, TOEFL, and TOEIC. I made sentence combining questions, but they were too difficult. Students found multiple-choice questions much easier. I also collected a list of mistakes Japanese often make and made questions based on these. They are very difficult for students, and I had to give good hints.

### Reading Materials

Many of the reading materials are concerned with teaching students about paragraphs. "Understanding English Paragraphs" is a set of materials intended to help students understand the construction, characteristics and important aspects of paragraphs. "Reading Paragraphs" is a set of materials that requires students to read paragraphs and answer comprehension questions. The "Japan-US Culture Comparison Series" deals with differences in manners and customs and is similar to "Reading Paragraphs." It is a series of readings, with topics including "Nonverbal Communication," "Holidays in the United States," "American History," "Kenji Goes to the United States," "Colonial Days," and "Visiting Western Europe."

**Writing Materials**

For writing exercises, I have made some materials such as "Writing English Paragraphs" to help students understand the construction and content of paragraphs, the writing of topic sentences and connecting sentences, etc.

**Vocabulary Exercises**

In order to help students increase their vocabulary, I have made materials to train students to guess the meanings of unfamiliar words in context. I have also made vocabulary exercises for the STEP test and exercises using Japanese words borrowed from English.

**Desirable Characteristics for Materials**

Based on three years of experience with CBI English classes, I have found that instructions, questions and exercises have to be very easy to understand, clear, and simple. If they are not, students get confused or misunderstand what to do, and the exercises will not be effective in helping them learn. All exercises should have some examples.

All the exercises were much easier than I thought they should be. However, the results were much worse than I expected. It is likely that I overestimated their English proficiency. According to Skinner's (1954) theory of reinforcement, an 80% correct response or better is good for studying. The exercises should be much, much easier than instructors think, and there should be many exercises. Each question should have only one main point, and students should not be expected to do many things on one question. I once made error-correction questions with two errors in each item. Students' results were very bad, and they were very frustrated with their inability to answer the questions correctly.

Teaching materials have to follow the minimal step order principle, that is, each question is slightly more difficult than the previous one, but not too much. Students do the questions in order, and they can understand each question based on what they learned from previous questions. It is also important to have a variety of work to do. Combining materials to follow the program and have variety is very important. This programming for each student is very crucial in making CBI courses successful.

### Difficulties in Making Materials

Making CBI materials is very time consuming. It requires from two to fifteen hours to develop a file that students spend 10-20 minutes on. Therefore it is important to find efficient ways to make materials, such as making multiple-choice questions, then converting them to fill-in-the-blank questions, and then to error-correction questions. Another way is making different versions of the same file, with different blanks, errors, etc., which make some questions easier or more difficult. For reading materials, even using the same passage, it is possible to make questions with different levels of difficulty.

In making materials, it is important to revise questions many times, based on student responses. They often respond very differently from what we expect, because of poor directions, difficult questions, etc.

Many CBI materials have to be prepared and stored for use according to students' interests and abilities. In order to choose good materials for individual students, we need a good manual to describe the content and level of English of the different materials, and if possible the previous results. Thus instructors can choose the best material for each student. It is possible to give a diagnostic test at the beginning, and, based on the results, choose the best material. CBI classes can provide such individualized instruction, and this is one of the biggest advantages of CBI.

## Students' Responses

Students have responded to CBI classes very well. They liked typing in particular, because they can be very successful and can see their progress. They get 90% or even 95% correct on the first trial. Their typing speed improves greatly. Students like multiple-choice questions as well, since this type of question is easy to work on, and students can get about 70% correct on the first trial. However, they become frustrated with write-in questions if the questions are too difficult. If they cannot get over 50% correct on the first trial or if they have to spend more than 30 minutes on a file, some students give up.

Compared with other English classes, students are required to be more active in learning in CBI English classes, because they have to finish all the assigned tasks by themselves. If they are given a lot of work, they have to work hard in order to finish as much as possible in the classroom, because they have to finish whatever they have not done as homework. However, if they are given too much, some will give up. If the maximum time and minimum score that are specified are too stringent, some students will give up. It is very important to choose an appropriate amount of work and set appropriate goals for students.

Because students can clearly see how well they are doing in CBI classes, they can determine their goals and study to meet those goals. Students study more actively for CBI classes than regular

English classes.

CBI classes are very different from other English classes. Students experience a different style of studying. Many students are interested in CBI classes, and every year more students come to explanation meetings before the enrollment. More students enroll in CBI English classes, and they seem to be satisfied with them.

## Advantages and Disadvantages of CBI

### Advantages

**For students.** One major advantage of CBI is that students actively respond and study using a computer. In many regular English classes, students sit passively in the classroom during classes. However, in a CBI class, students have to do their own work by themselves as quickly and accurately as possible. They have to pay attention to whatever they are doing.

CBI requires students to study actively. They get immediate feedback whenever they work, which they can use for further study. They also get a summary of the work at the end of each file. They are required to keep records, which makes them more responsible for their work and helps them gauge their progress. Also, because class averages for all files are posted in the computer, students can see how they are doing compared to their classmates.

Students can process much more material in CBI classes than in regular classes. They study much more. They cover several times as much material in my CBI classes as in ordinary English classes. Since almost all the materials I made give instructions, questions, hints, answers, etc., in English, students are exposed to a great deal more English than they are in some other English classes. They can improve their English greatly and come to think in English unconsciously.

Through the experience of working on CBI materials, students learn to pay close attention to spelling, because the computer accepts only accurately spelled answers. Students had not done much writing before participating in these CBI classes, and no one has closely checked their spelling.

Computers make monotonous work more exciting. Students show more interest in even simple exercises if they are doing them on a computer. As a matter of fact, I was surprised to find that students were fond of typing exercises. They can do a great deal in English, and their performance of English improves.

**For instructors.** CAI allows instructors to see how well students are doing. The instructors can also see how seriously students are working. Students and teachers can consult on the student's progress using the results sorted by score and time, so instructors can help students individually using the data on the student's work.

The information provided by CMI programs can also let instructors know what problems are common. The instructors can concentrate on common problems that many students have and improve teaching materials easily.

We have been developing CBI English programs for a long time and have achieved certain goals regarding teaching basic content and skills using only characters. However, our students' needs, interests, and abilities are quite varied, so we need to do further work on individualized instruction and with sound and visuals.

### Disadvantages

**Machines.** All machines have limitations. The Hitachi 2020 can process only characters, but not sound or visuals such as photos or videos. The screen can show only a limited amount of information, and the speed is rather slow. However, many textbooks have only text, and flipping pages takes almost as much time as changing screens.

Students have to learn to use machines. If we teach how to do it well enough in the orientation, there will not be a great many problems in the class, but if not, there will be too many problems.

Machines, of course, sometimes have problems. Misusing them can cause problems. CBI classes have the potential for more problems. If computers are designed for CBI English courses only, and not for other programming courses, we can limit the possibilities of the machines and avoid certain problems. Also we can consider using sound and visual systems in the classroom for language teaching. We need a technician to assist students and instructors with solving machine problems.

**Programs.** Both CAI and CMI programs were made by outside people. If we need to change them radically or even set up for each class at the beginning of the school year, we have to ask the technicians to do so; we cannot do them by ourselves at this time.

Making operation as simple as possible is very important to increasing the effectiveness of CBI. If operating a computer is complicated, it may hinder students' learning.

For writing classes, we need to use word processor programs, but the Hitachi 2020 cannot use any commercial programs for that purpose now.

**Materials.** Good CAI materials are not easy to make. Decisions about how to arrange the screen, how long to show each screen, what colors to use, etc., are not easy for amateurs. In addition, making materials is time-consuming. Revising materials based on students' responses also requires a great deal of time.

**Facilities.** Since students have to use TSS rooms, there are some limitations on students' use of the terminals. Students can use terminals only when the rooms are not being used for some other purpose. Some students do not have any time to study except at lunch time. We are negotiating to move some classes from the TSS rooms to the lap-top computer room, and/or to extend the closing time of the TSS rooms to 6 o'clock every day, so that our students can practice more outside the class.

The Hitachi 2020 is a desktop terminal, and they are lined up as in ordinary classrooms. Students cannot see the blackboard well, and the instructor cannot see students' faces well. They cannot take notes well, either. If computers were placed around the edge of the room, students could turn around and see the instructor well, and they could also get together easily to work together. Instructors would not need to move around as much to assist students.

Students have to pay ¥2,000 for the use of the computer. It is not expensive judging from the amount of time they spend using computers, but it is an extra expenditure.

**Preparation.** Instructors have to spend a lot of time preparing for classes. They have to transfer all materials before classes. They have to transfer all answer files, do statistical analyses, and erase files. They have to spend a lot of time and energy on such clerical work, and they cannot spend much time consulting with students. If we individualize classes more, instructors will need even more time for handling files. Instructors definitely need assistants for CBI classes.

**Administration.** Administration of computers and the TSS rooms is very complicated, and it is under many committees on which we do not have representatives. It would be ideal for teachers running CBI language courses to have their own rooms and computers with staff members to administer solely for the purpose of language instruction.

### Future CBI Classes

Multi-media CAI technology is becoming more available, and in the near future, we need computers that can process visuals and sound. We will use CD-ROM for image scanners and sound, video floppies, and video discs for visuals. We will be able to use them to put sound and visuals into computers or connect computers with them to use sound and visuals outside of computers. Using sound, students will be able to record their voices and compare their pronunciation with models. These will be language laboratories with computers, and we need to consider future language laboratories, which are out of date at Doshisha University.

We need a system where all computers are connected and the teacher can monitor students' screens or students can monitor each others' screens. This would be very useful in a writing course. It would allow the teacher to project one student's screen on the screens of other students and discuss it in class.

For CMI, we need to speed up the process and also find a method to project the results to the students as quickly as possible. Right now, our system is working effectively, but it takes time to show the results to the students. We also need to consider how to avoid using so much paper.

We need to increase the choice of materials available for use in class or by individual students. We also need to make a manual for each series of material, explaining the purpose, content, language items covered, difficulty level, previous results, etc. This would allow the instructor to use materials effectively to meet the needs and interests of the students. We also need diagnostic materials to pinpoint students' weakness. We need to continue our research on the difficulty levels of materials, so that we can set appropriate maximum time and minimum scores for specific students. We also need to label advanced, intermediate and elementary level materials.

We also need to improve the manual for instructors. In addition, we need to improve the orientation at the beginning of the course and the manual used for it.

At our university, we do not have much experience with programmed instruction or individualized instruction. We need to continue to carry out research to investigate more effective methods of instruction using computers.

## Conclusion

I have discussed effective CBI courses, based on my study and experience with CBI English courses. I would like to emphasize that

CBI can be effective for not only language instruction but any courses or training, even in settings outside of the school. As a matter of fact, this can be a very powerful learning tool for individuals or groups at home, in the classroom or in companies. However, if computers are used without a knowledge of both their strengths and weaknesses, they will waste learners' time and effort and may even be harmful. We need to continue to find out what facilities and equipment should be used, what programs and teaching materials should be provided, how to give feedback to learners, how to administer classes and CBI rooms, how CBI could make use of multi-media technology, and what else should be done in order to make CBI more powerful and effective. In order to improve CBI, we need cooperation among people from different backgrounds who are interested in CBI.

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## Appendix

List of CAI Teaching Materials (November, 1991)

| Content | Type | Files | Questions |
|---|---|---|---|
| Typing | W | 82 | 4,950 |
| Typing & Grammar | W (sentences) | 15 | 450 |
| Typing & Grammar | W (words) | 15 | 450 |
| total | | 30 | 900 |
| Grammar | | | |
| TOEFL | C | 7 | 320 |
| TOEFL | W (words) | 7 | 320 |
| TOEFL | W (errors) | 12 | 320 |
| general | C | 5 | 240 |
| sentences | C | 3 | 115 |
| combining sentences | C | 5 | 153 |
| combining sentences | W (words) | 5 | 157 |
| common mistakes for Japanese | W | 8 | 240 |
| TOEIC & STEP 1st class | C | 12 | 500 |
| TOEIC grammar | C | 35 | 780 |
| total | | 99 | 3,145 |
| Reading | | | |
| understanding paragraphs | W (figures & words) | 58 | 1,286 |
| reading paragraphs | W (words) | 122 | 686 |
| reading paragraphs | W (sentences) | 122 | 686 |
| Japan-US comparison | W (words) | 18 | 167 |
| Visiting Western Europe | W (sentences) | 7 | 50 |
| Visiting Western Europe | W (words) | 7 | 50 |
| Colonial Days | W (sentences) | 25 | 255 |
| Colonial Days | W (words) | 25 | 255 |
| reading test G | C | 5 | 30 |
| reading test H | C | 5 | 30 |
| Nonverbal Communication | W (sentences) | 7 | 48 |
| Nonverbal Communication | W (words) | 7 | 48 |
| Nonverbal Communication | W (blanks & sentence) | 7 | 104 |
| Kenji Goes to the US | W (sentences) | 5 | 62 |
| Kenji Goes to the US | W (words) | 5 | 62 |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Holidays in the US | C | 16 | 111 |
| Holidays in the US | W (words) | 16 | 111 |
| Holidays in the US | W (symbol & sentence) | 16 | 221 |
| American History | C | 16 | 194 |
| American History | W (words) | 16 | 194 |
| American History | W (symbol) | 16 | 190 |
| total | | 521 | 4,840 |
| Writing | | | |
| paragraphs | W (word, figure, sentence) | 25 | 667 |
| Vocabulary | | | |
| meaning in the context | C | 1 | 30 |
| loan words | C | 1 | 20 |
| STEP | C | 2 | 100 |
| total | | 4 | 150 |
| Culture | | | |
| Test of American Culture | C | 1 | 100 |

C (multiple-choice); W (write-in)

## Notes

[1] This study was carried out with assistance of Doshisha University Research Fund grants 1990 & 1991-1992, and Doshisha University Computer Research Fund grant, 1991.

[2] Information about the history of CBI at Doshisha University is available in the following publications.

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[3] Conversions to dollars are based on a rounded off exchange rate of $1 = ¥130 on November 29, 1991. (Now $1 = ¥90)

[4] Teaching materials mentioned in this paper do not include any materials developed by other instructors. Some of them are published. They are the following.

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# 23. Effects of English CBI at Doshisha University

Kenji Kitao

## Abstract

In this paper, I have described reading courses that I taught using computers in 1991 at Doshisha University. These courses started out with an orientation to the computers and to the rules of the class. Students did typing programs in order to learn typing skills necessary for the class, reading tests, and various reading assignments with questions, both on paper and using the computer. In addition to describing the assignments and their results, I have discussed what I learned through the experience of developing materials and teaching the classes about the characteristics of good and bad materials for teaching reading with computers.

## Introduction

As personal computers have become less expensive, more common, and more powerful, they have come to be used more frequently for instruction in schools, including colleges. Since this trend is likely to continue, it is important to understand what has been done in computer-based instruction (CBI) and how it can be done better.

Doshisha University began offering English classes using CBI at its Tanabe Campus in 1988 (Ishihara, Kitao, and Yamauchi, 1992; Kitao, 1992a; Kitao, Ishihara and Yamauchi, 1992). In this paper, I will report on the effects and problems of two CBI English reading classes held in 1990 and discuss what can be done to make foreign language CBI more effective.

## Administration of English Reading CBI Classes and Students

The teachers involved in CBI gave an orientation for CBI classes before students enrolled. We explained the content of the CBI classes, their administration, evaluations, and previous classes. We emphasized that any computer or typing skills students would need would be taught in the class. We also emphasized that attendance would be very important. About 80% of the students enrolled for their first choice and the rest for their second choice. Twenty-five students enrolled in each of two classes. Only one student had had any experience in typing or word processing.

### Objectives of the CBI Classes

The purpose of my CBI reading classes was to have students read English passages without translating them into Japanese. Students study sentences, sentence connections, and the organization of paragraphs before they read longer passages. Since students were not familiar with the organization of paragraphs in English, we put a great deal of emphasis on paragraphs. Students practiced with multiple choice questions (for which students had to enter the number of the correct answer only), fill-in-the-blank questions (for which students had to enter a word or phrase to fill in the blank in a sentence given in answer to a question or retype the whole sentence with the blank filled in), and error correction questions (in which students were given a statement with an error and asked to correct the error) using computers and teacher-made computer programs and materials. (At the end of each file, the student is shown the percentage correct on the first try, the percentage correct on the second try, and the amount of time taken.) The goal of teaching content was to learn about American culture. At the beginning of the first semester, students had two class-long orientations, typing practice, multiple choice, fill-in-the-blank and error correction grammar questions.

They started reading paragraph-length passages. In order to keep students active in studying, various types of exercises were given each class.

## The First Semester

### The Orientation

There were thirteen classes, including one during the final exam period in the first semester. The orientation was given in the first two classes. I explained the purpose and content of the class, text materials, expected results, evaluations, rules and regulations for using the TSS rooms and computers, transferring of files between the host computer and terminals, checking of the files, use of the bulletin board, filling in of record charts, typing etc., using a 14-page orientation manual (Kitao, 1992b). Since these would be very important for class administration, I explained them clearly along with a demonstration and let students have hands-on practice. I also gave quizzes over the material covered in the orientation, with previous notice, but an average of only 60% of the answers were right for the first orientation and only 70% for the second orientation. I was shocked at how little students had learned.

### Activities and Exercises

I gave the students a list of the graded readers available in our library and gave them instructions on reading them and on writing reports on them using printed materials. (See "Indépendent Reading in English — Use of Graded Readers in the Library English as a Second Language Corner" in this volume.) I thought that it would be good for them to read from printed pages as well as computer screens, since long reading passages in particular are very difficult to read on a computer screen.

I explained how to use a typing program "LTYPE" and had students practice typing. However, not many students actually practiced typing with it. I taught students how to place their fingers in home position again and again using the typing exercises I had developed, because many students tended to use the wrong fingers. Since typing should not require much thinking, I gave the students easy grammar exercises which required some typing. The results were 75.3% right for the first time and 87.1% for the second time. (In contrast, for typing exercises, the average was 91% correct for the first time and more than 98% for the second time.) This might mean that students could not think well while typing or that they could not do exercises that required them to think about two things at the same time.

I gave students a reading comprehension test (Form G: See "Japanese College Students' English Reading Ability" in this volume) and American culture tests, which I had given on paper to students in previous classes (Kitao, 1989). The students in the computer classes scored more than 50% right in the dialogue and the essay. The mean score was 53.3%, which was very low, and the time spent was 32 minutes 56 seconds, which was slow compared with the results of previous studies, which were done on paper rather than on a computer. In contrast, the mean score was 45% on the Test of American Culture, which was higher than any group which had taken it, and the time required was 26 minutes and 40 seconds, which was fast compared with previous studies (Kitao, 1977; Kitao, 1979; Kitao, 1980; Kitao, 1982; Kitao, 1989). Students did very well if they could see all questions and cues on one screen, but they did not do as well if they had to change screens many times.

I gave three parallel TOEFL grammar exercises, with 280 multiple choice, fill-in-the-blank, and error correction questions. I gave students 200 similar multiple-choice questions after 280 multiple-choice TOEFL questions and before 280 fill-in-the-blank questions. Students felt that the multiple choice questions were easiest and the error correction questions most difficult. However, their scores were slightly higher on the error correction questions than the fill-in-the-blank questions. (See table.) Students took a little longer, on average, to answer the fill-in-the blank questions than the multiple choice questions, but they took three times as long to finish the error correction questions as the multiple choice. They averaged less than 60% correct on all forms, indicating that these questions were too difficult, since an average of 80% would be considered to indicate an appropriate difficulty level. Scores improved much more on the multiple-choice questions than fill-in-the-blank or error correction questions. They obtained about 60% right in the second time for fill-in-the-blank and error correction questions, indicating that these were very difficult.

Table Results of TOEFL Exercises

| Material | NQ | Time | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Multiple-Choice | 280 | 1:21:54 | 58.4% | 79.8% |
| (TOEFL) Review | 40 | 9:50 | 63.0% | 82.4% |
| Multiple-Choice | 200 | 53:58 | 54.3% | 77.4% |
| (General) Review | 40 | 10:35 | 61.2% | 81.0% |
| Fill-in Exercise | 280 | 1:44:57 | 47.4% | 59.3% |
| (TOEFL) Review | 40 | 14:29 | 55.3% | 67.7% |
| Error Correction | 280 | 4:00:00 | 51.6% | 61.7% |
| (TOEFL) Review | 40 | 27:01 | 65.4% | 74.0% |

N.B.: NQ = number of questions
1 = first try
2 = second try

I took every seventh question from three TOEFL files and every fifth question from 200 multiple-choice questions and made review questions. I gave the review questions a week after the original exercises, and the results are reported in the above table. Students improved their scores four to seven percentage points and their times on every type of review question, but they improved most on error correction questions. I talked to the students, who indicated that they did not remember much about the questions that they had answered the previous week. Judging from the fact that a week had elapsed, the scores improved relatively little.

Students had difficulty with exercises that required them to connect sentences, particularly when they had to fill in connecting words. There were lessons before the exercises that provided examples and instructions, but students might have been confused by the many possible connecting words.

Students were also given reading materials on various subjects during the first semester and also in the second semester. The reading exercises were done by presenting students with a passage on the screen, and then questions about the reading, one on each screen. If the student answered the question incorrectly, the paragraph in which the answer appeared was shown again, and the student had another chance to answer the question. If the answer was still incorrect, the correct answer was given, and the student went on to the next question.

Some reading materials on comparisons between Japanese and American cultures were given. Students should have already been very familiar with the information about Japanese culture, but they had difficulty answering questions about it. This may have been due to the fact that they were required to fill in the blanks in order to answer the questions.

I gave the students reading and listening tasks on Niagara Falls and New York City as homework. I found that about 11 students just copied their friends' answers. I talked to those students personally, and they stopped copying.

I found that if their work was not going to be evaluated, students often did not take it very seriously. They were willing to work hard for a grade, it seemed, but not just for the sake of learning or developing skills.

### Overall Results of the First Semester

The attendance rate for the CAI classes as a whole was 97.1%, which is much higher than my other English classes. Most of the absences were during Golden Week. Only one student out of fifty dropped (this student had quit attending other classes as well), which again was a much lower rate than in other English classes I had taught.

During the course of the first semester, students worked on 2,259 questions (excluding typing exercises) for an average of 17 hours 42 minutes and 32 seconds. I estimated that the fastest student finished in about 12 hours and the slowest one in about 35 hours. Including typing exercises, an average student spent about 28 hours working on the files themselves, so including booting up, transferring files, and finishing, students probably spent over 33 hours on average.

Orientations are very important for smooth class administration. I gave students a fourteen-page handout and explained it step by step, but students did not do well on quizzes over the material. It is very important to give students good orientations, so that they can remember important information.

It was my observation that students would work hard to earn good grades but would not work hard on exercises such as LTYPE for which they were not being evaluated. It is important to find out how to allocate points for their work, so that they would do their best.

Students scored lower on the reading test, Form G, using a computer, than students who did it on paper. This may have been partly because they could not see much information on one screen, so they would forgot what had been on the previous screen, they did not bother to go back to check information, etc. We need to consider the most effective way to present reading materials on the screen.

Students scored higher on the Test of American Culture than students who had previously done it on paper. They may have found this kind of test, in which the questions are short and could be seen on one screen, easier to deal with than a test like the reading test, in which the readings were too long to appear on the same screen with the questions.

Though the three sets of TOEFL questions were parallel, students did not do well on those. These questions were too difficult. They had problems spelling words accurately because they were not used to writing English words. They thought that multiple-choice questions were much easier.

Error correction exercises were time-consuming, though they were easier than fill-in-the-blank questions. Students spent a lot of time finding the error, but once they had found it, they could correct it easily.

When students had to type a whole sentence to answer a question, this required a lot of time. Typing itself is time consuming, and it is a good idea to avoid using an answer format that requires a lot of typing unless the point of the exercise is to practice typing. Though students found questions that were difficult frustrating, they were very active in studying and were willing to spend a large amount of time finishing all the tasks. Most of the students expressed satisfaction with these classes. They were amazed at the improvement in their typing skills.

## Summer Break

### TESOL Summer Institute Computer Course

During the summer between the first and second semesters, I audited the CAI class at TESOL Summer Institute at Michigan State University. I learned to use a Macintosh word processing program; to make graphics, drills and tutorials using authoring programs; to make grading sheets with a spread sheet program; and to use adventure games, simulations, and interactive video programs using video discs. This course was helpful for teachers using a Macintosh computer to teach English. This course reassured me that the materials we have developed at Doshisha University are based on sound instructional theories for CAI.

**Revisions of Programs**

During the summer vacation in 1990, we improved our programs. For the CMI programs, for example, we changed the program so that the computer would make a list of students who did not do exercises, lists ranked by score and time, and totals for files with the list of students who did not do any file. With these improvements, it became easier to check on how individual students were doing. For the CAI programs, we changed the program to allow us to set a maximum time and minimum score so that if students spent more time or obtained lower scores, they had to do the file again. With these changes, we could easily see how students were doing on various files and control the conditions such as the maximum time and minimum score for the exercises.

## The Second Semester

Since the students had not done any exercises with a computer for the two and half months of the summer vacation, it took some time before they got used to working with a computer again. They required a longer time to do exercises, and they could not finish as many files as they had been able to finish at the end of the first semester. Therefore, it is necessary to give students fewer files at the beginning of the second semester and gradually increase the assignments.

I had given the students a textbook to study during the summer vacation, and I gave them several tests over the material during the second semester. The results were not good, and it did not appear that the students had studied hard.

Setting maximum times and minimum scores changed the students' study behaviors. I set the standards using previous records, and they were set at a level that would allow almost everyone to meet them. However, they seemed to become a kind of psychological barrier. If students had to do the same file again after working on exercises for a long time, they seemed to lose their motivation to study further. It is obvious that psychological aspects of learning were very important to the effective use of CAI.

I started the second semester with multiple-choice questions, since the students had to get used to the keyboard again. I introduced some questions like those on standardized tests such as the TOEIC or STEP. I collected answers for the summer vacation assignment at the beginning of the semester. I gave five tests on it over a period of five weeks. I gave students materials on the organization of paragraphs, nonverbal communication, holidays in the United States, American history, and TOEIC grammar problems. I made assignments fourteen times during the semester, including once during the final exam period. I gave students various types of material each week to provide some variety of tasks and arranged them from those requiring less typing to those requiring more typing. Throughout the semester, I assigned 186 files (3,641 questions) as requirements and 22 typing exercise files (960 questions) for optional practice. The average student spent 22 hours, 4 minutes and 49 seconds on the required assignments, and 3 hours, 1 minute and 21 seconds on typing.

I gave the students the same typing exercises I had given them in the first semester. On average, they obtained slightly higher scores. (I assume that there was a ceiling effect, since the scores were already very high.) They also finished 20-50% faster. Giving a maximum time increased typing speed. Typing exercises were optional, and less than two thirds of the students did most of the files. When there were many required assignments, very few students did the typing exercises. When making assignments, it is important to be aware of how much work students can reasonably be expected to do each week.

The results of the exercises covering the summer assignment were not very good. The CAI exercises that covered the material that the students studied over the summer included questions over the material but not the reading passages themselves. All of the questions were different from the questions in the textbook. This might have worked better if I had given some of the same questions or provided the text as a hint after students gave a wrong answer.

I gave the same questions as Part V (grammar and vocabulary questions) & VI (correction of grammatical errors) of the first and third TOEIC. The average scores were 380, 440, 350, and 380 respectively, following the conversion information given for the TOEIC. These scores are in the middle of D level, which means that they could make themselves minimally understood in ordinary conversation, which is good for non-English major sophomores.

I gave exercises for the TOEIC and STEP with multiple-choice questions, without providing hints. Students did very poorly for the first trial and not much better for the second trial. The multiple-choice questions are not necessarily easy, but students felt more comfortable with them than fill-in-the blank or write-in questions.

I gave grammar exercises making use of points of grammar that Japanese students often have difficulty with. These were difficult, and since there were no hints, the scores for the second trial did not improve much. This type of exercise would be more effective with good hints.

I gave reading comprehension exercises for paragraph-length readings and exercises to help students understand the organization of paragraphs at the same time. For the reading comprehension exercises, students read a paragraph and then worked on comprehension questions. Students saw a question and an answer with a blank in it, and they had to fill in the blank. If they got the answer wrong, they could read the same paragraph over and try to answer again. For a total of 351 questions, answers were 40.5% correct for the first trial was and 64.7% correct for the second trial. Students had had very little practice reading without translation, and they had difficulty remembering the important information. We need to give students more practice of this kind.

Exercises to help students understand the organization of paragraphs included explanations about paragraphs. Organization, development, topic sentences, main ideas, transitions, coherence, and types of paragraphs were explained. Students had difficulty with the questions at first, but they did better as time passed.

I also gave the students a continuation of a series of readings begun in the first semester on comparisons of Japanese and American cultures. Students did better on scores and especially on time. The paragraph reading comprehension exercises and the help in understanding paragraph organization might have had an influence. Another factor is that students seem to spend much time on unfamiliar exercises, but once they get used to a new type of exercise, they can finish it much faster.

In December, I gave the Form G Reading Test which I had given in May. Students' average score was slightly above 50%, which was not much of an improvement over their scores in May, but they required about half as much time to finish. The first time they took the test, they were not accustomed to taking a test on a computer, but after doing many exercises on a computer, their speed had improved. However, students may still have been paying too much attention to the use of the computer, or it may be that the materials were too difficult.

I also gave the Form H Reading Test (See "Japanese College Students' English Reading Ability" in this volume), which is a more difficult version of Form G. The students averaged only 42.3% correct, though they only spent about 17 minutes, which is half as much time as previous students had spent on the paper test. It may be that students pay less attention to CAI materials than paper materials.

I also gave reading materials which were longer than one paragraph on such subjects as holidays in the United States, nonverbal communication, and American history. The difficulty levels varied a great deal, depending on the reading and the questions. Students had difficulty reading long passages. Exercises which required students to answer in complete sentences were particularly difficult and frustrating for students. In their high school English courses, they had not studied much on how to write in complete sentences. I also found that if students had to change screens to continue to read the passage, they would forget what they had read in the previous screen. Changing screens takes a little time, and that apparently hinders students' understanding. Long passages might be presented better with printed materials, because getting everything on one screen is not always possible when using a computer.

For students' self study, I made TOEIC grammar exercises with explanations in Japanese. The students felt comfortable doing exercises with Japanese explanations. These materials were very easy, with multiple-choice questions. For CAI, easier materials seem to be most effective. However, we often tend to make materials too difficult for students.

For these courses, I developed various kinds of materials and learned a lot about the characteristics of good and bad CAI materials. I found that materials work best when they are easy to understand, when explanations are clear, and when there are many examples. Procedures for studying have to be easy to understand and clearly shown, and answering the questions has to be easy. If students are not good at typing, it is necessary to use exercises that do not require much typing. The purpose of the materials should be clear and the materials appropriate to that goal. If the purpose is comprehension, for example, the question should not require much writing. Reading materials should be short and easy. For CAI, many easy lessons seem to be more effective than a few difficult lessons.

After the semester ended, we improved our programs again. We made a program that lists students' errors for each question. This allowed us to see the tendencies in students' mistakes and helped us improve the questions. We made it easy for students to see the number of questions, the maximum allowed time, the minimum required score, how many repeats they needed to do, and the length of time they have spent. We also made a change so that the results would show how many times students had done each file. In order to enhance the individualized instruction, we made it possible for students to set the maximum time and the minimum score as well as whether they would see the hints and correct answers when they give wrong answers.

Using the error list which we developed, I revised the materials. If 50-60% or fewer got a question right, I tried to analyze the cause and change the question to make it clearer, easier, or whatever was appropriate.

## Conclusion

CAI is growing rapidly, and there is still much to be learned about how computers can be used most effectively in language teaching. Through the experiences of teachers, we can gain insights into using computers to teach language.

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Kitao, K. (1993). Doshisha daigaku ni okeru eigo kodoku CBI no koka (2) [Effects of English CBI at Doshisha University (2)]. *Doshisha Studies in English*, 59, 87-142.

# 24. Individualizing English Instruction Using Computers[1]

Kenji Kitao

## Abstract

Approaches to education in Japan and the United States are very different. One of the major differences is in individualized instruction. In Japan, in most cases, all of the students in a class are treated the same. In the United States, education is more individualized. Individualized instruction became an important trend in education in the 1970s.

Computers are ideal for individualized instruction. When personal computers became more common and less expensive in the 1980s, many schools purchased them. Computers are used in Japan for individualized instruction, but it is questionable how effectively they are used.

In this paper, I have discussed differences between Japan and the U.S. in approaches to education. I have explained the reasoning behind individualized instruction — students' proficiency varies a great deal, their interests and goals are widely divergent, and the pace at which students work is different.

I also explained in detail what individualized instruction is and what areas of instruction can be individualized — objectives, methods, pace, content, and level of difficulty. I discussed the role of the teacher in individualized instruction, the effects of individualization, the role that CAI can play, the advantages and disadvantages of CAI in individualized instruction, and the personnel, facilities and materials that are necessary for CAI.

## Introduction

English education in Japan from junior high through college has been criticized by teachers, students, parents, and administrators. Among the major criticisms is that even after several years of instruction, students have difficulty using English for communication. In college English courses, students are often uninterested in textbooks, and some feel that the classes are too difficult, uninteresting, useless, impractical, etc. Recently, in accordance with changes in the Ministry of Education's regulations for colleges, many colleges are changing their English curriculum.[2]

In this paper, I will discuss the differences in approaches to instruction in Japan and the United States; the need to individualize English instruction; what individualized instruction is; necessary equipment, materials, and personnel for individualized instruction; individualizing instruction using computers; and advantages and disadvantages of using computers in individualized instruction.

## Differences Between Approaches to Instruction in Japan and the United States

Judging from my experiences as a student and a teacher in both Japan and the United States, there are major differences in approaches to instruction in the two countries. One of the major differences is the attitude toward the students as individuals. In Japan, all of the students in a class are treated the same. The same information is given to all students, and everyone studies in the same way. The same rules are applied to all students, and exceptions are made in very few cases, such as injury, sickness or a death in the family.

In contrast, classrooms in the United States are more individualized. All students expect that they will be treated as individuals. Instructors are expected to increase the abilities of individual students and help them with areas in which they are weak. When I taught in the United States, just taking attendance in the first class was chaos, because students told me whether to call them by their first names, nicknames, or middle names and corrected my pronunciation of their names. Even though the rules of the class were made clear, students brought many problems to me, and insisted that exceptions should be made for their situations. It was important to listen to them and handle each case separately, so I could not apply the rules the same way all the time.

Approaches and goals of classes in Japan and the United States also seem to be very different. In Japan, students are expected to learn the information from their textbooks and the teacher's lecture. This approach puts a great emphasis on memorization and on knowing facts.

In contrast, in American education, developing creativity is more important than memorization. More emphasis is put on enjoyable learning activities than in Japan. Students learn using games, simulations, and activities as well as textbooks and other traditional resources. When I was a graduate student, I tutored an elementary student in reading as a part of a class on teaching reading at the elementary level. I was told not to explain anything to the student but rather to prepare games or activities through which he could learn (Kitao, 1976).

## Individualized Instruction

Individualized instruction in foreign language teaching was the most observable trend in foreign language education in the United States in the 1970s (Altman, 1972), and, in part because of the approach to education that Americans take, Americans have been especially receptive to the idea of individualized instruction. Many articles and books were published on the subject, and many graduate students in the TESOL program in which I was enrolled in the mid-1970s wrote master's theses on individualized instruction. In the

1980s, the growth of individualized instruction slowed, but there continued to be much interest in it, and in 1986, more than 100 American universities had individualized instruction programs, and 200 more were interested in developing them (Harlow, 1987).

### Computers and Individualization

Computers were considered ideal for use in individualized instruction. At the University of Illinois, a program called PLATO was developed. It included a huge amount of instructional material, and it was sold both in and out of the United States. However, computers were very expensive at that time, and so not many schools could afford to buy the hardware necessary to use it (Thrush and Thrush, 1984).

In the 1980s, personal computers became much more widely available and less expensive, and many schools purchased them for use in classes (Dunkel, 1987). The most common personal computers were the Apple series. Many educational programs were available, and there were also many programs made by instructors. Such teacher-made computer assisted instruction (CAI) programs were very popular at the TESOL conference in Toronto in 1983 (Kitao, 1983), and many teachers brought the programs they had made and demonstrated them.

In Japan, personal computers became more widely available in the latter half of the 1980s. Foreign language CAI became more common. However, it is questionable whether computers are being used effectively to meet individual students' needs.

## The Necessity of Individualizing English Instruction in Japan

In Japan, most students start studying English when they begin junior high school. However, within a year, their levels of English proficiency already vary, and as time goes by, such differences become larger. At the college level, very few, if any, English classes have students who all have same level of proficiency. Most college English classes have students who vary widely in English proficiency (Kitao and Miyamoto, 1982; Kitao and Miyamoto, 1983; Kitao and Yoshida, 1985; Kitao, Kitao, Yoshida, and Yoshida, 1985; Kitao, Yoshida, and Yoshida, 1986; Yoshida and Kitao, 1986). Thus, it is difficult for teachers to determine the level at which they should target their English classes. Some classes include returnees from English-speaking countries or students who have gone overseas for short periods of time as well as some foreign students from non-English speaking countries whose English proficiency is very low. Therefore, at minimum, we need individualized instruction for very low and high proficiency students.

College students' interests also vary a great deal. Whatever materials are used in a class, some students will not be interested in them. I have given students surveys of their interests, and the results indicated that their interests varied a great deal. When I asked students what kinds of materials they wanted to use in class, I could not find any single topic or skill most of them wanted to study. Thus, I have concluded that materials which include a variety of topics are good. In recent years, more textbooks have been produced which have different topics and types of readings in each chapter. In contrast, ten or fifteen years ago, the most common type of textbook was one with excerpts from a single British or American book. The number of textbooks with a variety of topics are increasing a great deal, and publishers have told me that they are in constant demand.

No matter what textbooks are used, if they are chosen by the teacher, the students feel that they do not have control, and this reduces their motivation to study (Kitao, 1989; Kitao, Yamamoto, Kitao, and Shimatani, 1990). One study used graded readers that students could choose from the library, allowing students to pursue topics that they themselves chose. The results indicated that the students enjoyed reading for this assignment, since they could choose books themselves rather than reading one that was chosen by the teacher (Kitao, 1989; Kitao, Yamamoto, Kitao, and Shimatani, 1990).

The amount of time required to read a given passage or do a given set of exercises varies more than the English proficiency of the students (Kitao and Miyamoto, 1982; Kitao and Miyamoto, 1983; Kitao and Yoshida, 1985; Kitao, Kitao, Yoshida, and Yoshida, 1985; Kitao, Yoshida, and Yoshida, 1986; Yoshida and Kitao, 1986). When students enter Doshisha University, their reading speed is between 50 and 100 words per minute. In my CAI classes, I keep records of students' scores and the time they spent on each exercise, and those records indicate that the slower students spent three times as much time as the faster students. In some cases, the slowest student in a class would spend ten times as long as the fastest student. Therefore, if we do exercises in class, the fast students have to wait a long time and the slow students have to hurry to finish. This is not conducive to learning. Students should work at a little faster than their normal pace to improve their fluency.

In general, Japanese students just follow their teachers' instructions and do not study English independently. They just come to class, sit down and do whatever their teacher tells them to do. They need to be more actively involved in their own learning and to take more responsibility for themselves. If they are responsible for whatever they have to do, they do fairly well.

As I have discussed, each class has a variety of levels of English proficiency, a variety of interests, and a variety of paces of studying. It is difficult or impossible to adapt English classes to the students' varied levels of English proficiency, interests, and pace. In addition, students tend to be passive. For these reasons, we need to both individualize the study of English and make students take more responsibility for their learning in order to get more effective results.

## What is Individualized Instruction?

I have referred to the individualization of instruction a number of times, and now I will discuss its definition. It is not a method or technique but philosophy of education (Altman, 1972). Individualized instruction means giving suitable instruction to each student. It is not teacher centered, and different students learn using different methods and at different paces. It is student-centered education, and its purpose is helping students learn what they need using their own learning style and at their own pace (Altman, 1972).

### Areas of Individualization

Altman (1972) discusses three areas of individualizing instruction: objectives or goals of learning, method and pace. These three areas can be combined to different degrees in different classroom situations (Logan, 1980).

**Objectives.** Individualizing objectives is the most extreme form of individualization, because the objectives that students have will influence every area of learning, including the methods that students use and the pace at which they study. Instead of all of the students working toward the same goal using the same method at the same pace, all of these will be different for each student. The teacher would essentially be a tutor to each of the students.

**Method.** Individualizing a method of study also has great effects on the classroom. If methods are individualized, students use different materials in class. Students might use only tapes, only books, or both. Students who are using books might use different types of books.

**Pace.** Individualizing pace of learning is probably the easiest of these three. Students who work quickly can go on to more difficult levels of materials, work on parallel materials of the same level to reinforce what they have learned, or work on materials related to different content. Slow students can study at their own pace and make sure that they are learning the material thoroughly. It is relatively easy to individualize pace, but extra materials are necessary.

**Content.** In addition to these three areas of individualization, I propose two more: content and levels of difficulty. If content is individualized, students have a choice of the content of the material that they study. Within the general area of American culture, for example, some students might be interested in studying American history, and others might want to study daily life in the United States.

**Level of difficulty.** When level of difficulty is individualized, students with a high level of English proficiency can use more difficult materials, while students with a lower proficiency can use easier materials. If there are various levels of difficulty for parallel materials, students can choose the best level for themselves — material that is slightly higher than their level of proficiency (Skinner, 1968). In order to provide this, a great deal of material is necessary. Students can choose the level of material that is suitable for them rather than having to struggle with material that is far too difficult or skimming quickly over material that is far too easy.

### Comparison of the Types

Of the five kinds of individualization, individualizing pace is easiest, because all that is required is extra materials for students who finish quickly. Individualizing levels is also relatively easy, if there are parallel materials available. Similarly, individualizing content is not difficult if students have access to materials on various topics. Individualizing methods is difficult if many different methods are used, but it may be feasible to give students a choice among two methods. Individualizing objectives is the most difficult type, because it influences all four of the other types of individualization — method, content, level, and pace. In summary, unless the teacher has one or more assistants, it is particularly difficult to individualize content, objectives or methods in the ordinary language classrooms.

### The Role of the Teacher

The objectives of individualized instruction are not determined by students' needs, interests or hopes alone. The goals are agreed on in consultation with the teacher, as the student and the teacher together decide what the student should learn and ascertain how the student's goals can best be achieved (Jenks, 1981). For example, low level students may want to try difficult material, and the teacher needs to decide whether that is feasible. The method and content have to be discussed between the student and the teacher in order to find the best way of reaching the student's goals. The teacher has to check what each student is doing, and as necessary, reconsider with the student the goals, methods, content, level, and pace. Thus individualized instruction is not totally independent. If it were, students could just study by themselves, as in a study hall. Teachers and their assistants have the responsibility to help each student find the best way to learn, to help them with their work, to check their work, and to guide them to more effective learning (Benmaman, Moore, Morgan, and Rowe, 1982).

## Effects of Individualization

If the objectives of foreign language instruction were individualized, what would happen in the classroom? First of all, each student would receive an appropriate education. Students would learn what they needed to know, based on their goals, interests and proficiency. They would study according to their own learning style and at a pace which was comfortable for them. They would not be given instruction that did not suit them. Even if a class cannot be completely individualized, it would be better to have some individualization of method, content, level or pace, because that would allow students to have at least some control over and responsibility for their own learning.

When students have individualized objectives, they learn how to learn a foreign language. They have to make their own goals and decide, along with the teacher, what to study in order to reach these goals. Thus each student has to actively participate in reaching his/her goal. Students cannot just sit in the class and kill time or passively listen to a lecture. They have to discover the learning style that suits them, and they have to take responsibility for setting goals, determining how to meet those goals, working toward their goals using that learning style, and measuring their progress against the goals that they have set.

When objectives are individualized, learning is student-centered, and the teacher assists the students in pursuing their goals. Both the student and the teacher need to be aware of the student's goals, method, content, and pace of learning. Both the student and the teacher need to understand that this type of class is different from a traditional one. Otherwise individualized instruction will not be effective.

When objectives are individualized, affective aspects of learning also need to be considered. Students need to feel security and satisfaction in learning. Without considering this security and satisfaction, students cannot achieve all that is possible (Brown, 1991).

As I have explained, individualization is not a method or technique but a philosophy of education. Rather than educating all the students in a class in the same way, it involves letting individuals decide, in consultation with the teacher, what is best for them. As teachers, we need to find the best methods for managing or administering courses that use individualized instruction. There is probably no single "best" method, so we need to find out how individualized instruction works in different types of classes and with different types of students.

## Individualized Instruction and CAI

Computers are very useful for individualizing instruction. In an ordinary classroom with one teacher, it is difficult or impossible for the teacher to respond to each student, to give feedback immediately, to be aware of each student's progress, problems, and weaknesses, making it difficult for individualized instruction to be effective. Computers are able to respond to the student, give information, and teach students (Otto, 1988). They can give exercises and immediate feedback about the student's answers (Church, 1986).

Giving immediate feedback is an important aspect of computer-assisted instruction, since it allows students to evaluate their answers while the questions are fresh in their minds. It helps prevent them from repeating the same mistakes until they get teacher feedback. Computers are always available, while the student is working, to give feedback, while a human teacher has to attend to other students and other tasks and may be tired or distracted (Church, 1986).

Computer programs have become very sophisticated and flexible. They can control the presentation of the materials according to the program, for example, by limiting the time available to read a text or answer a question. They can control other equipment, such as CDs and laser discs, and present the students with letters, sound, and visuals.

Computers can be a resource for studying, research and communication. They can be connected to databases, and students can get various types of information from the databases. In a sense, students have access to their own library through their computers. Computers can also be connected to the computer networks through which students can communicate with others and exchange information. Students can also work on projects with people on the computer network, even if they are far apart.

Computers can keep records of scores, time spent on the computer, and the files students have worked on. Students can see the results of their work. Teachers can also see what individual students and entire classes are doing. They can use this information to determine the course of future instruction and see the problems that students are having.

Using the records computers keep, it is easy to evaluate individual students and the class as a whole, using statistical analyses. It is possible to see class average, ranking of the students, difficulty levels of questions, types of questions students have difficulty with, etc. These results are very useful for class instruction as well as for guiding individual students.

## Advantages and Disadvantages of Using Computers for Individualized Instruction

### Advantages

The major advantage of individualized instruction is that each student learns according to his/her needs, interests, learning style, and English proficiency and at his/her own pace. If materials are systematized, each student can study only the materials that are appropriate for his/her goals, etc., and can get the most benefit with the least effort and time. Students do not sit passively in class but actively participate in learning. They can get hints and feedback from the computer as necessary. They can understand how well they are doing and what they have achieved. They can study as much as they want, depending on the availability of the computer. Students can evaluate themselves, find their weaknesses, and work on them.

Using computers, a teacher can establish a learning environment where there is one tutor with one student. It is simpler and more economical than hiring the large number of teachers that would be necessary for such individualized tutoring. As computers continue to get cheaper, and more teaching materials are developed for the computer, individualized instruction will become even more economical and efficient.

### Disadvantages

While the ideal situation for individualized instruction might be for a teacher to work one-on-one with a student, this is not usually feasible. Individualized CAI is much more economical and more practical, although it still requires facilities, materials, equipment, personnel, etc., and it is complicated to administer (Olsen, 1980). All in all, individualized CAI is much more economical than one-on-one individualized instruction, but it is still much more expensive than ordinary education.

We do not yet know the best way to individualize instruction through CAI. Teachers are still looking for good ways to administer it. It is also necessary to train teachers to teach individualized CAI courses and make manuals for them to carry on classes. If teachers expect that computers will do their all work, the classes will not be successful.

Appropriate and well-organized materials are absolutely vital to individualized instruction, and these may not be available, requiring the teacher to develop materials. When teaching an English course through CAI using individualized instruction, it is necessary to have a variety of materials on different topics and of different levels, making use of different methods. Finding or developing these materials and organizing them so that students can easily find those that are appropriate to their interests, goals and levels of proficiency take time and effort.

## What is Necessary for Individualized Instruction with CAI?

To use CAI effectively, it is necessary to have certain facilities, personnel, and materials.

### Facilities

To use CAI, special classrooms with computers are necessary. Since it is useful to be able to have the students study outside of class time, it is also important that these rooms be available and convenient for students to use, with the necessary study materials available. If possible, there should be staff members available who are familiar with not only the equipment but also with the teaching materials to help with any problems that might come up.

### Materials

A wide variety of teaching materials must be available for effective individualized instruction. There should be materials for various purposes, such as reading, writing, listening, speaking, grammar, standardized tests, business English, and conversations, depending on the purpose of the class and the goals that students have set for themselves, the interests and levels of the students, etc. All materials should have clear, concrete purposes so that students can choose the material they need or want.

**Content.** Teaching materials should cover a variety of content areas to meet students' needs and appeal to their interests. Some areas they might cover include daily life and culture in the United States and Britain, history, social problems, biography, geography, and various literary forms of English. Materials should be labeled clearly according to their content, so students can easily get access to the materials they need.

**Levels.** Materials should be available for different levels of difficulty. If possible, similar content should be available in materials for students of different levels of English proficiency. Students can choose one level, and if it is not appropriate, they can try easier or more difficult materials. Another possibility is to have students try samples of different materials to find out what level is best for them. Again, the materials should be organized in such a way that students can easily find the level they are looking for.

**Important characteristics.** Since students work independently, it is necessary that the materials have clear instructions. Good examples are also useful in helping students understand what is expected of them. If students do not understand the instructions, they obviously cannot work effectively.

Materials seem to be more effective if they are in a series rather than being completely independent of one another. In my experience, students spend a lot of time when they first use new material, but over time, they become more accustomed to the material and spend less time while doing better work. A series of materials might be on different aspects of a related topic but have a gradually increasing level of difficulty.

The materials used for individualized instruction should allow the teacher to see how well and how fast students are learning, and they should also show the teacher what kinds of problems students are having. The types of exercises or questions that students are having difficulties with should give an indication of what their weak points are, and either the computer program or computer manuals should direct students to materials that can help them with these weaknesses. This type of self-diagnosis helps students work more independently.

As I have explained, it is absolutely necessary that materials be organized in a way that helps students easily find the ones that they need for their goals, interests, and English proficiency. Teachers will help students to choose the appropriate materials, but the students need to be able to understand what they should study, too. Thus, there should be a guide to the materials that indicates their purpose, content, English level, the number of questions, the content of the questions, answers, maximum time and minimum score allowed, etc. Using this guide, students, teachers and other personnel can understand what the materials are and which materials would be appropriate for students.

## Personnel

Students, teachers, assistants, and administrators need to understand what students are studying, how well they are doing, and how fast they are working. It is therefore useful to keep old computer records.

When students are working outside of class time, there should be someone in the computer room who can help them. He/she should know the materials, programs, and equipment well and know what students are doing in each class. In a large university, such coordination is not easy, so it is necessary to carefully consider the organization of personnel. It is best if computer room staff members belong to the same department as the teachers who are teaching the classes. If they belong to other departments, they should have periodic committee meetings to coordinate and exchange information.

## A Trial of Individualized Instruction

I have been teaching English CAI classes since fall, 1988 (Kitao, 1991; Kitao, 1992a; Ishihara, Kitao, and Yamauchi, 1992; Kitao, Ishihara, and Yamauchi, 1992), seeking the best way to give individualized instruction to the students. The facilities and equipment available are not ideal, the software and teaching materials we use had to be developed inexpensively, and there are no assistants. The first thing I did in order to individualize instruction was to develop materials: typing, grammar, reading and understanding paragraphs, reading, writing, and special topics in English, such as traveling, living, and doing business in English-speaking countries. I made parallel materials with different levels of difficulty. Since I have made enough materials to occupy even those students who work very quickly, it has become possible to individualize the learning pace. In each class, I assign work which all of the students are required to do and also make available some optional work which students who finish the assigned work early can do for extra credit.[3]

Now I have a very wide variety of materials to use for CAI[4], and I can give students materials with the same content but at different levels of difficulty. I have developed self-study programs, and students can adjust the materials so that they can study according to the conditions that suit them best, for example, by setting a minimum required score and the maximum time allowed, answering questions with or without hints and with or without being shown the correct answers after mistakes. If students are given choices, they feel more responsibility for their learning.

Using item-analysis programs and error listing programs, I can find the problems that individual students and the class as a whole are having. I can give advice to students about their weaknesses. Since most of the class time is spent on students' individual learning, I am free to walk around the class, see how each student is doing, and give advice and encouragement. I have more personal contact with individual students in CAI classes than in ordinary English classes, and students are more satisfied with the CAI classes than with ordinary classes (Kitao, 1993b; Kitao, 1993c; Kitao, 1993d). I know most of the students in the CAI classes better than I know students in an ordinary class, and I get more feedback from them, too. Students also feel very close to me, and when former students see me on campus, they go out of their way to greet and talk to me.

So far I have been able to individualize CAI only partially, in the areas of content and pace. It is not easy to individualize objectives and study methods. It would be necessary to have teaching assistants and self-study rooms where assistants could work with the students. I also need to learn more about what kinds of help I should give to students, what advice I should give, and what the best way is to evaluate them in individualized CAI.

## Evaluation for Individualized Instruction

Evaluation in individualized instruction is based on what students have learned when they are ready to be measured (Altman, 1972). If the pace is different, evaluation is given at different times. If the content is different, the evaluation itself should be different. If the methods are different, students should be evaluated based on the method by which they learned.

Evaluation does not just involve giving grades to the students. It should be a measure of how well they have learned, what problems they have, etc., and it should be used to help students adjust their learning in order to reach their goals (Logan, 1971). However, if individualized instruction is given as part of an academic course, the system requires that students be given grades.

It is not easy to grade students in an individualized instruction setting, since they may have different goals, methods, content, levels, and pace. It is necessary to find the best ways to evaluate such classes, but there is little consensus on the best way to do so (Logan, 1971). In fact, the act of giving a grade seems, in some ways, contrary to the idea of individualized instruction, since the point of individualized instruction is to have students do work that is appropriate for them. Some argue for giving partial credit, based on the amount of work accomplished (Logan, 1980); others argue for basing grades on the accuracy of the work; and still others argue that it would be in the spirit of individualized instruction to evaluate students on the consistency of their effort (that is, whether they are doing their best) rather than on the results (Logan, 1971). The drawback is that however attractive some of these proposals might appear theoretically, they are not necessarily practical.

Another possibility is to evaluate students according to how well they have done their work and how much they have improved. The contract method is good for this. In the contract method, students agree with the teacher in advance what they will accomplish, how well they will do, how much material they will cover, etc. The evaluation is based on how well students fulfill their contracts. This method would be one possibility, though some students may object if students who set low goals for themselves are evaluated better than students who set high goals for themselves, so the teacher still needs to maintain certain basic standards.

In my classes, what I have done is to measure what percentage of materials students have covered and how well they have done. I give extra credit work, and if they do that, they get extra points.

I have kept records of all the materials students use in my classes. I plan to use it as a basis for calculating the difficulty levels of materials. Based on this information about difficulty levels, students can make plans for which materials they will study, and I can make a contract with each and evaluate their work based on the contract.

Grading is very difficult, but it should be used to help students learn better. Teachers need to continue to investigate the best methods of grading for each situation.

## Summary and Conclusion

English instruction in the future will be much more varied than it is now. Students' needs and interests in studying English and their levels of English proficiency will also be more varied. Thus, we need to have a greater variety of courses and different levels of classes. Yet it will continue to be necessary to give appropriate instruction to each student and to individualize instruction to some extent and to see what results students get and how much their English has improved. For these purposes, classes should be smaller, but the number of teachers is limited, and therefore, computers are useful in fulfilling the need for individualizing instruction. However, there is still much to be learned about how to best individualize at different levels.

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## Notes

[1] This study was carried out with the assistance of Doshisha University Research Fund grants 1991-1992 and 1993-1994.

[2] There was one session on changing English curriculum in college and eight cases were presented at thirty-second Japan Association of College English Teachers (JACET) conference held on September 8-10, 1993.

[3] English reading CAI in 1991 is discussed in Kitao, 1992b and Kitao, 1993a.

[4] The list of CAI materials I developed before March, 1993, is on the floppy disks attached to Edasawa et al., 1992, and Nozawa, Shimatani, & Yamamoto, 1993.

# 25. Students' Evaluation of CAI English Classes[1]

Kenji Kitao

## Abstract

Most studies of CAI have been from the point of view of the teacher rather than from the point of view of the student. In order to try to understand CAI from the students' points of view I surveyed the students in two reading classes and a writing class which used computers. I surveyed the students at the end of the first semester and at the end of the second semester. The questionnaires given at the end of the first and second semester included statements which students could agree or disagree with on a range from 1 (most strongly "no") to 6 (most strongly "yes"). Questions included those about how difficult students found the class, whether they found it useful, how it compared to other English classes, in what ways they felt their English had improved, how they felt about the difficulty of the English used in the class, and so on. I also asked the students to answer ten open-ended questions and to write a report about their reactions to the CAI class.

In this paper, I have reported on the students' responses to these questionnaires, the content of their reports, and what I learned about students' feelings based on my conversations with them.

## Introduction

Many diligent language teachers have been seeking more effective methods of teaching, and many of them have published theoretical and practical studies. At professional conferences, they have also discussed the effects of teaching methods, the use of audio-visual aids, and the various influences on students' learning.

Recently studies and reports on computer assisted instruction (CAI) of foreign language teaching and discussions of its effectiveness have been published. However, these tend to be from teachers' viewpoints rather than from the viewpoints of students. I have not been able to find any papers which discussed English language CAI from the student's viewpoint[2].

In the field of TESOL in general, there has been a greater emphasis on learner-centered education since the end of the 1970's. From this viewpoint, it is useful to understand how students learn and study. Learning the answers to such questions as "What materials do students find interesting?" "What formats of exercises do they find easy or difficult?" "What problems do they have with the way the class is administered?" will help us understand better the needs and opinions of our students and help us as teachers to teach more effectively. Teachers need to listen to their students and find out how they feel about learning, what their problems are, what their goals are in learning English, and so on.

In this paper, I will discuss the results of questionnaires given to a CAI English writing class (25 students) and two CAI English reading classes (49 students) in 1992. The questionnaires were administered in the final class of the first and second semesters, July 1992 and January 1993, using a computer. A paper-and-pencil essay questionnaire with ten questions was given when the July questionnaire was given and was collected the following week. Students wrote a report on their CAI classes during the winter vacation (December-January, 1992-1993).

## Methods

### Participants

In the writing class, 25 students enrolled and three of them quit coming to the class in the middle of May, so 22 students finished the class. There were four students of theology, 3 of letters, 9 of law, 5 of commerce, and 1 of engineering[3]. There were 8 male and 14 female students. Twenty-two answered the questionnaire in July (W7) and twenty-one (one female student was absent) answered in January (W1).

In the reading classes, 49 students enrolled, and one student had stopped coming to the class by the end of the first semester and another four, by the end of the second semester. There were 25 students of letters, 12 of law, 5 of economics, 3 of commerce, and 3 of engineering. Twenty-four of the students were male and 24 were female. The students who dropped out were all male students, two of letters, one of economics, and one of engineering. Thus, 48 students answered the questionnaire in July (R7) and 44 in January (R1).

The third questionnaire was given to the 44 students in the reading class, and 30 of them were collected one week later. An assignment to write a report on the CAI classes was given to all of the students before the winter vacation, and all reports were collected.

### Class Format and Content

From 1988 to 1992, all English CAI classes were special elective courses for sophomores. Students could choose among oral English, language laboratories, reading, writing and grammar. CAI courses were special reading, writing and grammar courses.

I taught two reading courses and one writing course. (See the syllabuses of those classes in Appendix A and B). In those three courses, I used the first two classes, 90 minutes each, for orientation. (See Appendix A, "CAI English Reading Class," and Appendix B, "CAI English Writing Class.") I used the next two classes to teach typing and to allow students to practice[4].

Since the students were not skilled at typing in the first semester, the materials they used in the writing course involved reviewing grammar with multiple-choice, fill-in-the-blank, and short answer questions. Reading passages with multiple-choice and short reading passages with fill-in-the-blanks were used in the reading classes.

In the second semester, all three classes studied the structure of paragraphs, and the writing students were assigned to write a paragraph using a word processor. Their assignments were corrected by me and given back to them with comments. General comments were given to the class every week, too. Reading students read many English passages in the second semester.

I gave directions on how to study each type of material, explained the content of the materials, gave comments on the results, and so on. Students worked in pairs for some materials, but they did more than 80% of the work by themselves. In the second semester, they did not do pair work, so they were able to cover more material. Most of the work they did involved using a computer, but the drawback was that they could use the computers only in classrooms and only when those classrooms were not being used for classes. I gave some assignments from a textbook and printed materials so that they could do some work at home.

I made all the CAI materials used in the courses. They made use of letters only without pictures or sounds. The programs showed a hint after the first incorrect answer and gave the correct answer after the second incorrect answer. The program kept track of the time students took to finish and the number and percentage of correct answers. The programs could be set to require students to go through the same material again if they did not obtain a minimum score or spent more than the maximum time.

Since a certain amount of work was assigned in each class, the less students finished in class, the more homework they had to do.

This motivated students to work steadily in class in order to finish as much work as possible. The students who worked fastest did more than twice as much work as the ones who finished the least. I assigned more work than the fastest students could finish in 90 minutes. The slowest students had to work more than four hours to finish the assignments for one class.

### Contents and Administration of Questionnaires

The questionnaire given at the end of the first semester had 40 yes/no questions. The questionnaire given at the end of the second semester had the same 40 questions (Nos. 1-40), plus an additional twenty questions. The students could indicate the strength of their yes/no answers with the numbers 1 (most strongly "no") through 6 (most strongly "yes"). Using 1 through 6 eliminated a mid-point. (See Appendix C.)

When I administered these questionnaires, I made it clear that these questionnaires were part of an investigation to improve the CAI classes and promised that students' responses to them would not influence their final grades in class. I strongly requested that students respond honestly.

Since the number of responses varied, I calculated the results according to the percentage of students giving each response and reported the results this way in Appendix C. The responses to the first (July) questionnaire by the reading students are labeled R7 and the second (January) questionnaire R1. The responses to the first questionnaire by the writing students are labeled W7 and the second questionnaire W1.

Another questionnaire was a paper and pencil measure with 10 questions which asked students to express their opinions. The questions were about 1) the strong and weak points of the class, 2) hours spent on homework for this class, 3) how this class compares to other English classes, 4) the difficulty level of the class, 5) difficulty level of the English used in the materials, 6) the materials used in the class, 7) the administration of the class, 8) the students' evaluation of the class, 9) the students' evaluation of the teacher, and 10) suggestions for ways to improve the class. This questionnaire was given along with the first one in the reading class and was collected a week later.

During the winter vacation, I assigned the students in all three classes to write a report on what they thought of their CAI classes. This gave all the students a chance to write in detail about their reactions to the class.[5]

## Results and Discussion

### Results of the Multiple Choice Questionnaires

The percentage of students who gave each response to the questions in the questionnaires is reported in Appendix C. In this section I will discuss the responses to the questionnaire, along with some information that comes from personal discussions with students.

**Question 1.** Almost all the students in the writing class responded in both questionnaires that they were glad they had enrolled in this class. This response was stronger in the second semester, when there were no negative responses. In the second semester, the students spent a lot of time and effort writing paragraphs, and this may have increased their satisfaction a little. The results for the reading class were similar, with more than 84% of the students satisfied with the class. In the second questionnaire, all the students except one were satisfied. In the second semester, students had few typing and grammar exercises, and they spent most of their time and effort for reading itself. This seems to have increased their satisfaction a great deal.

**Question 2.** As expected, both classes responded that they had many materials in both semesters. At the end of the second semester, all students in both classes agreed. However, in the results of similar questionnaires given previous years, no classes responded that they had few materials, so the responses are not surprising.

**Question 3.** Students liked CAI classes because they did not need to do much work at home since they had to use a computer at school. However, as students in the writing class had to study paragraphs and write one paragraph each week at home, this merit decreased. As for reading classes, they had some printed materials to study and read graded readers which they checked out from the library in the first semester, but they felt this merit more in the second semester since they did most work using a computer at school, though they had much homework during the summer vacation.

**Question 4.** Students in the writing class thought the materials used in the first semester were difficult, but that the ones used in the second semester were somewhat easier. As a whole, the difficulty levels were adequate. In the reading classes, more students thought that the materials were difficult, and the number of students who thought that they were very difficult increased in the second semester. However, I think that the difficulty of the materials may have come from the fact that the reading passages were relatively long and that they had to type long sentences in order to answer the questions.

**Question 5.** Students thought that what they learned in the writing class would be useful to them in the future, and this opinion became stronger in the second semester. I was surprised that students thought it was important to be able to write a passage. Students in the reading classes also thought that what they learned would be useful, though this opinion was not quite as strongly positive in the second semester. This may have been due to the fact that they studied grammar, typing and English for qualification exams such as TOEIC and TOEFL in the first semester.

**Question 6.** All but three students in the first semester and one student in the second semester thought that the CAI writing classes were better than other English classes. In the reading classes, 79% of the students in the first semester and 94% of the students in the second semester thought that the CAI classes were better than other English classes. I believe that the reason more students answered positively in the second semester was that they did more actual reading in the second semester.

**Question 7.** In the reading classes, 35-50% of the students did not think that they remembered well what they had learned. In my experience, this figure would be even higher in other types of English classes. In the writing class, the responses were relatively positive in the second semester. This may have been because the materials they studied were more abstract and broader in the second semester.

**Question 8.** The students thought that their typing skills had improved. In the writing class, all but 3 students thought that they typed well after the first semester, and by the end of the second semester, all of the students thought they typed well. In the reading classes, 20% of the students did not think they could type well after the first semester, but all except 3 thought they could type well by the end of the second semester. Since students tend to evaluate themselves negatively, this indicates that many students thought they could type well. It is surprising that they were able to improve their typing skills so much in just a year, even though I did not emphasize typing practice much in the course.

**Question 9.** In the writing class, students mainly did typing and grammar exercises rather than writing in the first semester. They practiced writing only at the sentence level in the first semester and so they did not think that they had improved their writing proficiency much. In the second semester, they wrote a paragraph every week, and I corrected their writing and returned it to them, as well as giving the class comments on common problems. Therefore, two thirds of the students thought that their writing had improved by the end of second semester. I believe that it is important for students to write passages rather than sentences. In the reading classes, students wrote sentences, phrases, or words in response to questions about the content of the readings. Interestingly, one third of the students still thought that their writing had improved by the end of the second semester.

**Question 10.** In the writing class, no emphasis was placed on developing reading skills, but one third of the students thought that their reading ability had improved by the end of the first semester due to the practice in reading that they had as part of their writing instruction, and half of the students felt that their reading ability had improved by the end of the second semester. In the reading classes, students did not do many reading exercises in the first semester, but by the end of the first semester about 60% thought they improved their reading ability and about 70% thought so by the end of the second semester. This figure seems low, since students read a great deal in the second semester. One problem, however, was that reading long passages on the computer monitor was difficult for students, so they had difficulty recalling what they had read previously, and they could not go back and see it easily.

**Question 11.** In the writing class, one third of the students at the end of the first semester and half of the students at the end of the second semester thought that their reading speed had improved. In the reading classes, 59% of the students thought that their reading speed had improved at the end of the first semester and 71% thought so at the end of the second semester. In both cases, this was probably the result of having to read a great many passages and having to finish assignments within a given time limit.

**Question 12.** In the second semester, students studied the structure of paragraphs, and 81% of the reading students thought that they understood this by the end of the second semester. In the reading classes, students had only a small amount of instruction on the structure of paragraphs, though they were exposed to many examples of paragraphs. Surprisingly 88% of the students thought that they understood the structure of paragraphs. This is a higher percentage than for the writing class, which did emphasize the structure of paragraphs. This indicates that teaching about the structure of paragraphs inductively may be effective.

**Question 13.** In the first semester, students did a lot of grammar practice. The writing students' responses to the question of whether the students reviewed grammar were all positive. The responses from the reading students were also fairly positive even at the end of the second semester, when they did less grammar review than in the first semester.

**Question 14.** During the second semester, I gave students in the writing class more comments on their work, but the students thought that I taught them more the first semester. This may have been because in the first semester they had much more orientation on how to use computers, etc., as well as typing instruction, and I had to help individual students more because of the difficulties they had. Thus students thought that they learned from the teacher more in the first semester. Also, in the second semester, I gave instructions and comments at the beginning of the class, and students who were late for class missed them. In the reading classes, students did most of the work by themselves in the second semester, and I gave them instructions about what to study and commented on the results of their previous assignments. It is natural that students would want to learn more from the teacher, though 25% of the students did not think that they had.

**Question 15.** The students' work was the center of the class, and most of them felt that the course was more interesting than other English classes. The responses of the students in the reading class were slightly more positive than the responses of the writing students.

**Question 16.** The students, for the most part, thought that they studied seriously for the CAI classes. Responses from the students in the writing class were more positive than those of the students in the reading classes. In the reading classes, the number of students who thought they studied seriously was higher than 80% in the first semester and higher than 90% in the second semester, which was very satisfactory. However, it would be useful to find out why some students did not study seriously.

**Question 17.** In the writing class, students preferred to answer questions that involved a lot of typing. This answer was even more strongly positive after the second semester, when the students were more accustomed to typing. In the reading classes, a little over half of the students thought it was better to answer questions with a lot of typing, but the answers were more evenly distributed than in the writing classes. Apparently students who had learned to type well got satisfaction from typing in answers to questions, but those who did not learn to type well had trouble typing the answers to questions. It is important for students to learn to type well at the beginning of the class.

**Question 18.** In the first semester, writing students liked the multiple choice questions, but their responses were less positive after the second semester. In the reading classes, multiple choice questions were popular but fewer students responded strongly in the second semester.

**Question 19.** Students thought that it was more difficult to read passages on the screen than to read printed materials, but they became more accustomed to reading materials on screen in the second semester and responses became more positive. The results were similar for the reading classes, though not quite as strong. This may have been because students had to read much more on screen in the reading classes, and they continued to have the same problem. It might be advisable to provide paper copies of very long passages.

**Question 20.** I made a file which served as a bulletin board for the class so that the students could see any directions, assignments, and the average results (scores achieved and time spent) of exercises. They could compare their own results with the class average, They indicated that they did not pay much attention to their classmates' results.

**Question 21.** In the first semester, 59% of the writing students answered positively to the question of whether the English used in the class was difficult, and 48% after the second semester. The materials may have seemed easier, in part, because students' reading ability may have improved and/or because they were more accustomed to doing the exercises. In the reading classes, 54% of the students answered positively to the question, and that percentage increased to 65% at the end of the second semester. Since students read very long passages in the second semester, this may have made the English seem more difficult.

**Question 22.** In the first semester, half of the writing students found the work boring because of the lack of variety, but in the second semester, they had a greater variety of work to do, and the percentage of students who responded positively was reduced to 38%. Students seemed to find doing composition assignments more interesting than just reading and doing exercises. In the reading classes, 28% of the students answered positively after the first semester, and 41% after the second semester, possibly because they became more and more familiar with the types of exercises.

**Question 23.** Only 9% of the writing students thought that there should be more assignments for the class by the end of the first semester, and their response was the weakest possible positive. None of the writing students responded positively by the end of the second semester. For the reading students, 2% responded positively at the end of the first semester and 9% at the end of the second semester. One of the goals of the CAI classes was to have students study English using many materials, and students felt that they had enough materials.

**Question 24.** In the writing class, the number of students who thought it was better to decide how much material they study increased from 50% in the first semester to 72% in the second semester. I imagine that the students who could do much more work than assigned and those who could just follow the class were clearly separated. The results for the reading classes were the opposite, with the number of positive answers decreasing from 75% to 59%. I gave students some optional work in the second semester. It seems that if there is optional work, students do not think it is necessary, but if there is none, they think it is necessary.

**Question 25.** Most of the writing students (64% in the first semester and 76% in the second semester) did not think the English should be easier. The results for the reading class were different, with 58% after the first semester and 48% in the second semester responding that the material should be easier. The responses were widely spread across the possible answers, indicating that it may be necessary to consider providing materials with different levels of English for different students.

**Question 26.** Not many writing students used a wide variety of materials in the second semester. This is probably because they were writing compositions, studying the responses to their previous compositions, and doing regular assignments, so they did not have much time for extra work which would have provided more variety. In the reading classes, students felt that it was good to have variety (87% after the second semester versus 56% after the first semester). Because of their assignments — reading different passages and doing comprehension questions related to them — their work might have been monotonous in the second semester.

**Question 27.** Many students wanted to have pictures or sounds in the materials in the writing class. However, one third of the students felt that using letters was enough. The rate of positive responses was higher than the reading classes (91% after the second semester). This may be because studying grammar and the structure of paragraphs requires fewer pictures and sounds. In the reading classes, students thought that it would be better if they had pictures and sounds, particularly for "Visiting Western Europe," which they thought would have been much better if it had had pictures.

**Question 28.** More than two-thirds of the students in the writing class responded that they would recommend that their friends take this class. About 80% of the students in the reading classes responded at the end of the second semester that they would do so. Students in both courses evaluated these classes highly. I believe that the reason the reading classes evaluated the course more highly was that they had materials that were more sophisticated and better organized.

**Question 29.** In the writing class, I gave the students some exercises to help them with English qualification exams, and students were interested in those and wanted to study them. In the reading classes, I gave students some of these exercises in the first semester, and the reading students were also interested in them. They expressed more interest in them when they did not study them.

**Question 30.** For most of the students who were enrolled in the CAI classes, it was their first or second choice. Therefore they were highly motivated.

**Question 31.** The most common motivation for taking CAI classes was unfortunately not that students wanted to improve their English but that they wanted to use computers. Word-of-mouth was apparently good, with up to 29% of the students responding that they had heard the class was good.

**Question 32.** Since more than 90% of the students were satisfied with the CAI classes, those classes were successful. In the writing class, students were more satisfied the second semester, perhaps because I corrected their compositions every week and returned them. In the reading classes, students were slightly less satisfied in the second semester. This may have been because they had less variety of work.

**Question 33.** My talking to the students while they were working did not disturb their study. It was a greater problem in the reading classes, (29% both semesters) where it may have made it difficult for students to remember what they had read.

**Question 34.** Students do not often feel much connection with their teacher. However, it is important to build personal relationships with students. Some students were very happy only because I recalled their names, because many other teachers did not even know their names. I thought that this gave me an important advantage that most college teachers do not have. In the writing class, it is important to be aware of individual problems and teach them how to deal with those. More than three quarters of students in both classes thought that it was good to have opportunities to talk to the teacher individually in the second semester.

**Question 35.** Students liked the pair work, but I gave such tasks only in the first semester, so the responses were a little more strongly positive after the first semester, since the experiences were fresher in their minds. I tried to form opposite sex pairs, and students accepted this. However, some students who worked slowly did not like to work with a partner, because they felt that they were a burden to the other student.

**Question 36.** In the writing class, I did not give many optional assignments and none in the second semester. The students would have liked to have optional work, particularly when they finished assignments quickly or when their grades were low. I gave a lot of optional work in the second semester in the reading classes, and their answers were more negative at the end of the second semester. However, 39% of the students wanted optional work, and so I think it is good to give a variety of work as optional assignments so that students can work on whatever they like.

**Question 37.** Both classes responded positively to the question of whether they had made friends. Their responses were more positive in the first semester because they had pair work assignments frequently.

**Question 38.** Students felt that they were isolated and wanted badly to get to know other students better. It is therefore important to do pair work, group work and some class activities with a whole class.

**Question 39.** Students were interested in me and my experiences. It is a good idea to share some personal information or experiences occasionally in class.

**Question 40.** Majorities in both reading and writing classes responded that they wanted to have listening practice, but they were not large majorities, except in the second semester of the reading classes, when 88% of the students wanted listening practice. This may have been because the work was more monotonous in the reading classes in the second semester. When I have given listening practice in previous years, students responded less positively. They wanted to have a variety of work.

**Question 41.** Large majorities in both classes responded that they had learned more in the second semester. This was probably because in the first semester they had orientations and typing exercises to prepare them for the real content of the class. Many of the students who thought they had learned less in the second semester in the writing class were those who did not feel that the corrections and comments I made on their compositions were useful.

**Question 42.** Students were given materials on the computer screens in these classes, and the majority were not happy about not having printed materials with them after they were finished with their computer assignments. The majority thought that they could understand better if they read printed materials rather than reading materials on the screen. Hard-working students thought that they would like to be able to review the materials, read the passages they liked again, and study for tests at home.

**Question 43.** In the reading classes, students read many passages including long ones in the second semester. They wanted to read easy, comprehensible materials. In the writing class, they read fewer passages, and that is why they were not as concerned about reading easy passages as the reading classes were.

**Question 44.** Some students in both classes (44% in the writing class and 25% in the reading class) wanted to read more difficult materials. The answers were more negative in the reading classes, since the reading students already read more difficult materials. It is good to have different levels of materials, so students use them and find out what level suits their abilities. In principle, a good length for reading materials is about 200 words, which students can finish within 15 or 20 minutes. If the passage is more than 500 words, and if it takes a student more than 30 minutes to finish the exercises, then the passage is too difficult.

**Question 45.** Students are not good at recalling what they have read. Therefore, they find long reading passages particularly difficult. After they read a long passage, they have difficulty remembering the content of the passage to do the exercises, so they do not like long passages. It is necessary for students to work up from reading shorter passages to reading longer passages. This seemed to be a particular problem for the reading students.

**Question 46.** The students thought that it was good to read many short passages. As mentioned above, gradually increasing the length of passages that students read is ideal.

**Question 47.** In the writing class, students wrote a paragraph every week during the second semester. They had to spend a lot of time and effort writing compositions. However, a large majority of students (86%) wanted to write more. They wanted to write longer passages, even though that was difficult. In addition, almost half of the students in the reading class (48%) wanted to write more.

**Question 48.** I made only minimal corrections on students' compositions. A majority (62%) were not satisfied with the amount of correcting I did and wanted corrections in more detail.

**Question 49.** I had the writing students rewrite the compositions I had corrected and returned. Most of the students (81%) felt that this was useful. They believed that rewriting helped them improve their composition skills.

**Question 50.** Surprisingly, students did not like the system of critiquing each others' compositions. They did not feel that they themselves did a good job of correcting, and they did not find their classmates' corrections very useful. Some of them did not make many corrections, and there were sometimes problems when students were absent and did not bring the classmates' composition that they had corrected. In general, they felt that it is the teacher who should do the corrections.

**Questions 51-52**[6]**.** These questions were about materials used in the reading classes. The most popular type of material (27% of the students indicated that they liked it best) was a collection of easy Bible stories for children. This had true/false comprehension questions and looked very easy. Since the students studied about the Bible in their religion classes, they were already somewhat familiar with some of the stories. "Visiting Western Europe" (23%) was the second most popular. It is a collection of diary passages describing a trip to Western Europe which had passages of 150-300 words and which was written in easy English. The exercises were fill-in-the-blank. Some students told me that they felt like they were traveling in Western Europe as they read this series. "Travel Expressions" (23%) were originally developed for conversation materials. This is a part of a phrase book of frequently used expressions for certain situations that overseas travelers might encounter. Since this did not have sound, students read the Japanese translation and said the equivalent English phrase aloud and then typed it in as the answer. I was surprised that this type of simple material without sound was so popular among the students. This is because they badly want to speak English. *Holidays in the United States* (30% of the students indicated that it was the second best) is a series of easy readings with the true/false questions. They explain the backgrounds of holidays and annual events that Americans celebrate.

**Questions 53-54.** The material that students disliked most was *An American Sampler* (Book 4) (25% of the students thought it was the worst material), which I assigned them to read over the summer vacation. This was an experimental textbook, which was an early version of *An American Sampler*, published by Addison-Wesley, and it was very difficult for them. The readings on English newspapers were from chapters 1-8 of *Understanding English Newspapers* (23% thought it was worst) published by Kirihara Shoten. They are long and difficult to read on the screen. *Colonial Days* (14% thought it was worst and 25% second worst) is about colonial life in the United States, and students are not at all familiar with the content.

**Questions 55-56.** There is an obvious relationship between difficulty levels of materials and their popularity with the students. They liked easy materials and disliked difficult materials. It is not indicated by the results of this questionnaire, but the students also liked materials that they thought would be useful to them in the future, practical materials, concrete information, and easy exercises.

**Question 57.** The rates of satisfaction were high. The rates were slightly higher for the writing class, because I made corrections of their compositions and gave critiques of them in class, and they found such direct instruction useful.

**Question 58.** The students seemed to be satisfied with materials they studied. After they finished, they felt they had developed skills or learned new information.

**Questions 59.** Most of the students seemed to be satisfied with class administration, though some were not. The greatest dissatisfaction seemed to be related to the problems concerning the lack of availability of the computer rooms when students had spare time. The computer rooms were frequently used for classes, and there was very little time when students could use the computers, even though we made arrangements for students to use them for an extra period after fourth period. The computer rooms were very crowded at lunch time, and it was not easy to get a computer then.

**Questions 60.** Most of the students were satisfied with the teacher, but a few were not, due to problems with class administration, materials, or interactions they had with me.

## Results of the Open-Ended Questionnaire

The third questionnaire, an open-ended pencil-and-paper measure, was given in the reading class when students responded to the first questionnaire. Thirty responses were collected one week later. I will present the summary of the answers to the ten questions.

The strong points of this class were that students learned to type English, they could study at their own pace, they could devote themselves to their work, they could read a lot of material, they could enjoy reading, they could read faster, they learned a lot, they could study seriously, they could read a variety of materials, they could study constantly, they could review grammar, and they enjoyed the class. The weak points of this class were that students had a hard time finding time to use computers outside of class time, they had few opportunities to talk to other people in the class, they had a lot of homework, and their eyes got tired from looking at the computer screen.

The students thought that they had a great deal of homework, and it was hard to find enough hours to use a computer. However, they did not have much to do at home, and most of the students were satisfied with this.

Compared with other English classes, they thought that this class was more practical, it was interesting, it was more satisfying, it was not boring, it was more enjoyable, they learned more, they had much more homework, they had to study hard, they were content with the class, they were more active in class, and they learned English more efficiently using a computer.

The students thought that they had too much to do, the grammar was difficult, long passages were difficult to read, and it was difficult to type enough to answer questions. Most students thought that this class was challenging but not too difficult.

As for difficulty levels of English, students thought that they could understand, vocabulary was difficult, and long passages such as those in "American History" were difficult, but 13 students thought that they were adequate or easy. No students answered they were too difficult.

As for materials for study, 12 students thought they were good. They were interested in them, and they thought they were useful or practical. Some students complained that they could not recall the content of the reading passage when they were working on the exercises. Remembering the spellings of difficult words was particularly difficult. If they mistyped even one letter, the answer was wrong. They thought that some exercises required too much typing. No students complained about the contents or the topics of materials, except that many students thought that the summer homework was very difficult. They liked easy materials with concrete content.

As for administration of the class, 11 students responded that it was good. Some students thought that pair work was good for getting to know their classmates. They wanted to have more activities for getting acquainted with their classmates.

Nine students thought that the evaluation was good. One student wanted me to take attendance into consideration for grades. They liked the system of knowing how well they were doing, because this gave them an idea of how much more effort they had to make.

As for their opinions of the teacher, 11 students responded positively. They thought that I was very hard-working, I was kind, and I had personal contact with them. A few students mentioned that I knew a lot about the topics they studied, and they learned a lot from me personally. One student mentioned that I was very hard and gave too many assignments.

As for how to improve this class, several students thought that they should have less homework. A few students wanted to change seats so that they could get acquainted with other classmates. Several students complained that they had a hard time finding time to work on computers because of the schedules of other classes. Most students seemed satisfied with this class.

## Results of Reports

The results of the reports were similar to those of the above open-ended questionnaire. Some students thought that they had too much to do at school but not much to do at home, and they wanted to have printed materials to study at home. They liked to have a wide variety of materials and activities in the class. They also liked to study from the basics, going from easy materials to difficult materials, and they felt that they could really master those. They really liked using a word processor to write paragraphs. They thought that the evaluations in the CAI classes were much better than in the other English classes, which had only one or two examinations. They thought that it was good to have opportunities to talk with the teacher in every CAI class, and they felt free to ask questions. They had a lot of satisfaction with their active learning in CAI classes, and they disliked a great deal just translating English passages into Japanese, which is what they do in many English classes. They find this activity very boring, and so they liked the CAI classes because these classes were very different.

## Conclusions

In order to convey the CAI students' feedback to CAI instructors and others who are interested in CAI, I wrote up the results of the questionnaires given in my CAI classes.

In summary, almost all of the students were satisfied with their CAI classes, though their original motivation for enrolling in the class was, in many cases, not learning English but using computers. Many of the students took the class due to recommendations from their friends. They thought they would not do much work at home, though they wanted to have a more flexible schedule to practice at school.

### Materials

The difficulty levels of materials were adequate. Reading passages of 150 to 300 words are a good length, and anything longer than 500 words is difficult. Any materials which require more than 20 minutes are difficult. The students thought that materials with sounds and pictures would be better, but quite a few of them thought materials that used only letters were enough for practice. Multiple-choice questions were easy, and questions which require too much typing were difficult. However, the students learned to like the latter better after their typing skills improved. They thought that the materials were concrete and practical, and they learned something useful from them. They liked the materials that helped them prepare for qualification examinations. In general, it is a good idea to use many easy materials with a variety of topics and activities. If students are assigned very long or difficult materials, they need printed materials, since they have difficulty recalling what they have read on the computer screen. Even simple practice such as typing was not boring for them, and they were satisfied with their achievements.

### What Students Disliked

Students indicated that they were tired of ordinary English reading/translation classes, which they thought were boring and difficult. They felt that they were passive in class, and they did not learn much. They want to be active and to have a chance to be creative.

Students found reading passages difficult if they were more than 300 words, and especially if they were more than 500 words. They did not like to work with long reading passages or reading passages they found difficult.

Students felt uneasy because they often did not remember what they had learned. They found it difficult to remember what they had seen on the screen, so they would have liked to have paper copies of the materials so they could review them at home.

## What Students Liked

Students liked to have personal contact with the teacher. In my CAI classes, I had more contact with students than in other classes, and they talked with me more openly about their feelings and responded more openly to questionnaires, so I was able to learn about their problems, their likes and dislikes, etc. They seemed more satisfied if I corrected their papers and returned them frequently, had more conversations with them in and out of class, and gave them more feedback individually. The students I talked with more had more satisfaction in my class. They did not necessarily approach me, but they were pleased if I approached them. They were interested in me and my experiences, particularly my experiences in foreign countries. Therefore, I think it is important for the teacher to interact with and pay attention to the students. If a teacher approaches them, they are willing to open up to him/her. This relationship is very important to a successful class.

Students liked materials which they thought would be useful in their future. For this reason, they liked materials related to learning typing, writing, English for qualification exams, grammar, useful expressions for conversations, and information about going abroad. They also liked material which had concrete content, such as traveling in Europe and the Bible stories.

Students liked variety. They liked to have a variety of materials and activities to do in order to stay interested in the materials.

Students got a lot of satisfaction out of studying material if they could understand it and if they could see their progress. Being able to understand what they were reading in English gave them a great sense of accomplishment. If they could get a certain percentage of correct answers, they were happy. They were most satisfied with activities such as typing in which they could clearly see the progress they had made. They also believed that they had learned to read faster, understand better, write better, know grammar well, and understand the structure of English paragraphs well, all of which they found satisfying.

Students liked to have feedback for how they had done on each individual question or an entire file, comparisons with their classmates, feedback from the teacher, etc. CAI materials are particularly useful in this respect, because they provide immediate feedback, statistics for the class as a whole and individual students, etc.

Students wanted to have more interaction with their classmates, too. They liked pair work a great deal. Though they wanted to work with others, they did not like to be evaluated by others.

Students liked the individualized style of studying used in the CAI classes. They could study at their own pace. However, they knew that they had more responsibility for their learning.

As a teacher, I felt that it was important to get feedback from students and to adjust my teaching and administration of the class accordingly. In CAI classes, this is particularly easy, because the computer can perform statistical analyses, and students can use the word processing program to write more extensively about their responses.

**Summary**

I believe that through these measures and discussion with my students, I came to understand what they thought, what they expected, and what problems they encountered. I hope this feedback will contribute to better CAI classes. However, the feedback here is from my CAI classes at Doshisha University, where, within a very limited schedule, they had to study how to use computers, and these computers had limited capabilities; where all materials were made by me for the class. In addition, these classes were drill or tutorial-oriented classes. There are therefore limitations as to how well the results will generalize to other situations, but I do believe that other teachers can gain information from the experiences of my students.

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## Appendix A

### CAI ENGLISH READING CLASS

by Kenji Kitao

PURPOSE

This course is designed to improve your ability to read English without translation, using a computer. You will start by reading individual sentences, reading connected sentences, reading individual paragraphs, and then reading essays. Since understanding paragraphs is very important in reading English, we will spend a lot of time learning how paragraphs are organized and studying various types of paragraphs.

CONTENT

For the purpose of this course, reading English involves understanding the main ideas and important information in reading passages. We will practice this using various types of exercises. Types of exercises include multiple choice, fill-in-the-blank and short answer (phrases or sentences). You will learn to type during the first half of the first semester and will work on writing words, phrases and sentences later in order to show your comprehension, using the typing skills you will learn. We will review the basic English grammar you need in reading English, also using a computer. In this course, we will cover the background of English, particularly American daily life and culture.

### TEXT AND MATERIALS

We will use materials that you receive through the computer, printed materials, tapes, and some books from the library.

### EXPECTED RESULTS

If you work hard in this class, you will brush up on your knowledge of English grammar and learn how English passages are organized. This will help you read English passages better and faster and write English sentences better. You will also develop typing skills and become familiar with computer terminals. What you study and practice in this course will not only improve your English proficiency but also your ability to use a computer and word processor, and, as an added benefit, you will learn something about American culture.

### ATTENDANCE

Since all instruction and counseling is given during the class, your attendance is very important. If you miss a class and do not make it up, 5 points will be subtracted from your final grade. If you miss 3 or more classes a semester, you will not pass this course, even if you make them up.

If you miss a class, get a make-up task for it within a week and finish it within two weeks after your absence.

### EVALUATIONS

The final grade will be given based on the results of exercises both in and out of the class, class participation, attendance, exams, and projects.

You are expected to finish ALL assignments ON TIME. If you do, you will receive at least an 80 for your final grade. If you finish 90% of the assignments on time, you will receive at least a 70, and 80%, at least a 60, IF you have made up any absences that you might have. If you turn in extra credit projects, whatever scores for those will be added on your final grade. If you want to get a good grade in this class, a good strategy is to attend all classes and finish all your assignments on time.

## Appendix B

### CAI ENGLISH WRITING CLASS

by Kenji Kitao

#### PURPOSE

This course is designed to improve your ability to write English without translation, using a computer. You will start by studying individual sentences, connected sentences, individual paragraphs, and then essays. Since understanding paragraphs is very important in writing English, we will spend a lot of time learning how paragraphs are organized and studying various types of paragraphs.

#### CONTENT

For the purpose of this course, writing English involves expressing the main ideas and important information in reading passages and organizing them in ways that are conventional in English. We will practice this using various types of exercises. Types of exercises include multiple choice, fill-in-the-blank and short answer (phrases or sentences). You will learn to type during the first half of the first semester and will work on writing words, phrases and sentences later in order to show your understanding of the concepts we are studying, using the typing skills you will learn. We will review the basic English grammar you need in writing English, also using a computer. In this course, we will cover the background of English and American culture as well as other cultures.

#### TEXT AND MATERIALS

We will use materials that you receive through the computer, printed materials, tapes, and some books from the library.

#### EXPECTED RESULTS

If you work hard in this class, you will brush up on your knowledge of

English grammar and learn how English passages are organized. This will help you write English sentences and passages better and faster. You will also develop typing skills and become familiar with computer terminals. What you study and practice in this course will not only improve your English proficiency but also your ability to use a computer and word processor, and, as an added benefit, you will learn something about American and other cultures.

ATTENDANCE

Since all instruction and counseling is given during the class, your attendance is very important. If you miss a class and do not make it up, 5 points will be subtracted from your final grade. If you miss 3 or more classes a semester, you will not pass this course, even if you make them up.

If you miss a class, get a make-up task for it within a week and finish it within two weeks after your absence.

EVALUATIONS

The final grade will be given based on the results of exercises both in and out of the class, class participation, attendance, exams, and projects.

You are expected to finish ALL assignments ON TIME. If you do, you will receive at least an 80 for your final grade. If you finish 90% of the assignments on time, you will receive at least a 70, and 80%, at least a 60, IF you have made up any absences that you might have. If you turn in extra credit projects, whatever scores for those will be added on your final grade. If you want to get a good grade in this class, a good strategy is to attend all classes and finish all your assignments on time.

## Appendix C

### Results of the CAI Questionnaire

This questionnaire is given in order to improve future English CAI classes. Your honest response will help. Will you cooperate with us? Whatever you respond, you will not receive lower grades in this class.

Yes No (Figures are percent.)

1 I am glad that I enrolled in this class.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 18 | 41 | 32 | 5 | 5 | 0 | W7 | 13 | 48 | 25 | 13 | 0 | 2 | R7 |
| 19 | 57 | 24 | 0 | 0 | 0 | W1 | 27 | 48 | 23 | 0 | 2 | 0 | R1 |

2 The amount of study in this class is large.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 55 | 32 | 5 | 5 | 0 | 5 | W7 | 60 | 31 | 4 | 2 | 0 | 2 | R7 |
| 52 | 33 | 14 | 0 | 0 | 0 | W1 | 57 | 27 | 16 | 0 | 0 | 0 | R1 |

3 This class is good because we have no work at home.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 36 | 27 | 14 | 14 | 9 | 0 | W7 | 35 | 17 | 17 | 8 | 13 | 10 | R7 |
| 10 | 14 | 19 | 38 | 10 | 10 | W1 | 32 | 23 | 11 | 21 | 11 | 2 | R1 |

4 The content of this class was difficult.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 5 | 27 | 41 | 14 | 5 | 9 | W7 | 2 | 13 | 48 | 25 | 13 | 0 | R7 |
| 0 | 24 | 14 | 52 | 5 | 5 | W1 | 9 | 23 | 39 | 25 | 5 | 0 | R1 |

5 I think what I learned in this class will be useful in the future.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 36 | 27 | 32 | 5 | 0 | 0 | W7 | 50 | 31 | 15 | 4 | 0 | 0 | R7 |
| 38 | 33 | 29 | 0 | 0 | 0 | W1 | 34 | 30 | 30 | 7 | 0 | 0 | R1 |

6 This class was better than other English classes.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 14 | 50 | 23 | 9 | 0 | 5 | W7 | 31 | 31 | 17 | 17 | 2 | 2 | R7 |
| 19 | 43 | 33 | 5 | 0 | 0 | W1 | 32 | 39 | 23 | 5 | 0 | 2 | R1 |

7 I remember well what I learned in this class.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 9 | 68 | 9 | 14 | 0 | W7 | 4 | 17 | 38 | 33 | 6 | 2 | R7 |
| 0 | 14 | 38 | 33 | 14 | 0 | W1 | 0 | 23 | 39 | 34 | 5 | 0 | R1 |

8 I learned to type well.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 27 | 41 | 18 | 5 | 5 | 5 | W7 | 27 | 29 | 25 | 6 | 6 | 6 | R7 |
| 57 | 24 | 19 | 0 | 0 | 0 | W1 | 46 | 16 | 32 | 5 | 0 | 2 | R1 |

9 My writing ability has improved.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 0 | 9 | 46 | 36 | 9 | W7 | 0 | 0 | 13 | 44 | 29 | 15 | R7 |
| 0 | 38 | 29 | 24 | 5 | 5 | W1 | 2 | 7 | 23 | 32 | 23 | 14 | R1 |

10 I can read English better.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 9 | 23 | 32 | 27 | 9 | W7 | 6 | 13 | 38 | 27 | 17 | 0 | R7 |
| 5 | 19 | 29 | 33 | 14 | 0 | W1 | 5 | 32 | 32 | 23 | 7 | 2 | R1 |

11 I can read English faster.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 0 | 36 | 27 | 27 | 9 | W7 | 2 | 15 | 42 | 29 | 13 | 0 | R7 |
| 5 | 14 | 29 | 29 | 24 | 0 | W1 | 14 | 27 | 30 | 21 | 9 | 0 | R1 |

12 I understand the structure of English paragraphs.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 5 | 0 | 36 | 32 | 23 | 5 | W7 | 2 | 17 | 46 | 25 | 8 | 2 | R7 |
| 5 | 38 | 38 | 14 | 5 | 0 | W1 | 9 | 27 | 52 | 9 | 0 | 2 | R1 |

13 I reviewed English grammar.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 46 | 32 | 23 | 0 | 0 | 0 | W7 | 6 | 21 | 46 | 19 | 6 | 2 | R7 |
| 24 | 33 | 43 | 0 | 0 | 0 | W1 | 5 | 18 | 27 | 30 | 16 | 5 | R1 |

14 I wanted the teacher to instruct us more.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 5 | 46 | 23 | 18 | 9 | W7 | 8 | 8 | 40 | 40 | 4 | 0 | R7 |
| 5 | 29 | 29 | 24 | 14 | 0 | W1 | 5 | 27 | 43 | 14 | 9 | 2 | R1 |

15 This class was less boring than other English classes.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 59 | 14 | 23 | 5 | 0 | 0 | W7 | 54 | 27 | 15 | 4 | 0 | 0 | R7 |
| 43 | 43 | 14 | 0 | 0 | 0 | W1 | 43 | 27 | 23 | 7 | 0 | 0 | R1 |

16 I have studied conscientiously in this class.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 46 | 32 | 18 | 0 | 5 | 0 | W7 | 29 | 33 | 21 | 15 | 0 | 2 | R7 |
| 57 | 19 | 19 | 0 | 5 | 0 | W1 | 27 | 25 | 39 | 7 | 0 | 2 | R1 |

17 I prefer types of questions whose responses require a lot of typing.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 9 | 27 | 27 | 14 | 14 | 9 | W7 | 13 | 15 | 13 | 17 | 19 | 25 | R7 |
| 19 | 19 | 19 | 24 | 19 | 0 | W1 | 9 | 18 | 30 | 18 | 9 | 16 | R1 |

18 Multiple-choice questions are good.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 18 | 36 | 18 | 14 | 5 | 9 | W7 | 33 | 15 | 25 | 15 | 10 | 2 | R7 |
| 19 | 14 | 10 | 38 | 5 | 14 | W1 | 23 | 21 | 41 | 14 | 2 | 0 | R1 |

19 It is easier to understand printed materials than those on the screen.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 36 | 14 | 23 | 9 | 9 | 9 | W7 | 27 | 27 | 21 | 13 | 8 | 4 | R7 |
| 19 | 14 | 14 | 14 | 24 | 14 | W1 | 23 | 18 | 30 | 21 | 7 | 2 | R1 |

20 I often compared my scores with the class ones and used the information to help me study.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 9 | 0 | 36 | 36 | 5 | 14 | W7 | 2 | 13 | 21 | 42 | 19 | 4 | R7 |
| 0 | 14 | 24 | 33 | 24 | 5 | W1 | 0 | 11 | 27 | 21 | 34 | 7 | R1 |

21 The English used in this class was difficult.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 5 | 27 | 27 | 27 | 9 | 5 | W7 | 8 | 15 | 31 | 35 | 8 | 2 | R7 |
| 5 | 19 | 24 | 43 | 0 | 10 | W1 | 5 | 30 | 30 | 30 | 5 | 2 | R1 |

22 Because the work did not have much variety, I soon tired of it.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 18 | 32 | 9 | 18 | 23 | W7 | 2 | 13 | 13 | 29 | 31 | 13 | R7 |
| 0 | 19 | 19 | 33 | 14 | 14 | W1 | 5 | 11 | 25 | 32 | 23 | 5 | R1 |

23 More work should be required for this class.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 0 | 9 | 14 | 36 | 41 | W7 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 13 | 25 | 60 | R7 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 24 | 29 | 48 | W1 | 0 | 0 | 11 | 23 | 16 | 50 | R1 |

24 It is good for individual students to decide how much they want to study.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 27 | 14 | 9 | 27 | 9 | 14 | W7 | 29 | 27 | 19 | 10 | 13 | 2 | R7 |
| 10 | 43 | 19 | 10 | 19 | 0 | W1 | 23 | 11 | 25 | 21 | 21 | 0 | R1 |

25 The English used in this class should be easier.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 9 | 27 | 18 | 23 | 23 | W7 | 10 | 17 | 31 | 19 | 19 | 4 | R7 |
| 0 | 0 | 24 | 38 | 24 | 14 | W1 | 9 | 18 | 21 | 32 | 16 | 5 | R1 |

26 It is good to use several kinds of materials in each class so that the study will not be monotonous.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 5 | 9 | 32 | 36 | 9 | 9 | W7 | 10 | 27 | 19 | 25 | 13 | 6 | R7 |
| 14 | 19 | 14 | 24 | 14 | 14 | W1 | 32 | 30 | 25 | 9 | 2 | 2 | R1 |

27 It would be better if we had sounds and pictures as well as characters, which we have now.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |  | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |  |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 23 | 36 | 9 | 9 | 9 | 14 | W7 | 46 | 27 | 10 | 8 | 6 | 2 | R7 |
| 33 | 29 | 5 | 10 | 10 | 14 | W1 | 59 | 14 | 18 | 5 | 2 | 2 | R1 |

28 I will recommend this class to my friends.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |  | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |  |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 9 | 32 | 27 | 23 | 9 | 0 | W7 | 17 | 25 | 27 | 15 | 13 | 4 | R7 |
| 19 | 14 | 38 | 14 | 14 | 0 | W1 | 14 | 34 | 30 | 18 | 2 | 2 | R1 |

29 I wanted to study English for language qualification exams.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |  | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |  |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 27 | 9 | 32 | 18 | 14 | 0 | W7 | 19 | 13 | 10 | 31 | 13 | 15 | R7 |
| 14 | 24 | 33 | 10 | 10 | 10 | W1 | 30 | 9 | 11 | 21 | 18 | 11 | R1 |

30 I enrolled in this class as

|  | W7 | W1 | R7 | R1 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 my first choice | 91 | 86 | 88 | 84 |
| 2 my second choice | 5 | 14 | 8 | 9 |
| 3 my third choice | 5 | 0 | 2 | 7 |
| 4 only choice I had | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 |

31 The first reason I enrolled in this class was

|  | W7 | W1 | R7 | R1 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 it fit my schedule | 0 | 5 | 8 | 9 |
| 2 I wanted to use a computer | 59 | 57 | 48 | 57 |
| 3 I was not interested in other English classes | 0 | 5 | 4 | 5 |
| 4 I thought I could increase my English proficiency | 18 | 19 | 6 | 2 |
| 5 I thought it would be an easy way to earn credits | 0 | 5 | 0 | 2 |
| 6 I heard that Dr. Kitao's class was good. | 18 | 10 | 29 | 21 |
| 7 My friend(s) enrolled in this class. | 0 | 0 | 4 | 5 |

8 Other

5 0 0 0

32 I am satisfied with this class.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 23 | 36 | 32 | 9 | 0 | 0 | W7 | 31 | 35 | 25 | 6 | 2 | 0 | R7 |
| 24 | 48 | 19 | 5 | 5 | 0 | W1 | 27 | 39 | 30 | 2 | 2 | 0 | R1 |

33 I was disturbed by having the teacher talk while I was working.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 5 | 5 | 5 | 27 | 18 | 41 | W7 | 4 | 10 | 15 | 10 | 25 | 35 | R7 |
| 5 | 14 | 5 | 33 | 14 | 29 | W1 | 7 | 5 | 18 | 30 | 14 | 27 | R1 |

34 It is good to have opportunities to talk individually with the teacher.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 9 | 36 | 41 | 14 | 0 | 0 | W7 | 27 | 17 | 25 | 25 | 6 | 0 | R7 |
| 14 | 24 | 38 | 19 | 5 | 0 | W1 | 21 | 25 | 30 | 18 | 5 | 2 | R1 |

35 It is enjoyable to work with other student(s).

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 18 | 32 | 14 | 14 | 18 | 5 | W7 | 13 | 17 | 21 | 19 | 17 | 15 | R7 |
| 10 | 29 | 24 | 0 | 33 | 5 | W1 | 14 | 21 | 34 | 11 | 14 | 7 | R1 |

36 It would have been good to have more optional work.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 9 | 32 | 32 | 14 | 9 | 5 | W7 | 6 | 10 | 25 | 29 | 10 | 19 | R7 |
| 10 | 48 | 29 | 10 | 0 | 5 | W1 | 0 | 16 | 23 | 32 | 14 | 16 | R1 |

37 I made friends in this class.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 46 | 9 | 14 | 14 | 14 | 5 | W7 | 35 | 21 | 19 | 13 | 8 | 4 | R7 |
| 24 | 19 | 43 | 14 | 0 | 0 | W1 | 21 | 18 | 34 | 11 | 9 | 7 | R1 |

38 I would like to become better acquainted with the friends I made in this class.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 41 | 27 | 14 | 14 | 5 | 0 | W7 | 33 | 38 | 17 | 10 | 0 | 2 | R7 |
| 33 | 33 | 19 | 10 | 0 | 5 | W1 | 36 | 18 | 36 | 2 | 2 | 5 | R1 |

39 I would like to become better acquainted with my teacher.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 18 | 27 | 32 | 18 | 5 | 0 | W7 | 27 | 23 | 31 | 15 | 2 | 2 | R7 |
| 10 | 19 | 48 | 19 | 0 | 5 | W1 | 27 | 21 | 36 | 11 | 0 | 5 | R1 |

40 I would like to practice listening.

| 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 27 | 18 | 14 | 23 | 18 | 0 | W7 | 31 | 15 | 15 | 15 | 13 | 13 | R7 |
| 29 | 19 | 5 | 10 | 33 | 5 | W1 | 25 | 27 | 36 | 5 | 5 | 2 | R1 |

41 I feel I learned more English in the second semester than in the first semester.

6 5 4 3 2 1 6 5 4 3 2 1

38 29 10 24 0 0 W1 18 25 36 16 2 2 R1

42 If we had received printed versions of what we studied on the computer, I would have studied at home.

6 5 4 3 2 1 6 5 4 3 2 1

0 29 14 24 10 24 W1 14 7 21 18 23 18 R1

43 I would like to read more easy passages.

6 5 4 3 2 1 6 5 4 3 2 1

0 0 24 52 14 10 W1 18 16 23 32 7 5 R1

44 I would like to read more difficult passages.

6 5 4 3 2 1 6 5 4 3 2 1

5 10 29 43 5 10 W1 2 14 9 30 21 25 R1

45 I would like to read more long passages.

6 5 4 3 2 1 6 5 4 3 2 1

0 5 24 38 14 19 W1 0 7 5 32 11 46 R1

46 It is good to read many short passages.

6 5 4 3 2 1 6 5 4 3 2 1

24 24 29 19 5 0 W1 50 34 7 9 0 0 R1

47 I would like to write English more.

6 5 4 3 2 1 6 5 4 3 2 1

10 33 43 10 5 0 W1 7 7 34 18 16 18 R1

48 I would like the teacher to correct my English compositions more in detail.

6 5 4 3 2 1

10 38 14 24 10 5 W1

49 It is good to rewrite English compositions, based on the teacher's corrections.

6 5 4 3 2 1

10 38 33 14 5 0 W1

50 It is a good idea to have students critique each others' English compositions.

6 5 4 3 2 1

5 5 14 24 38 14 W1

51

| Which materials were best? | R1 |
|---|---|
| 1 Western Europe | 23 |
| 2 Colonial Days | 7 |
| 3 Travel Expressions | 21 |
| 4 Holidays in the US | 7 |
| 5 Kenji Goes to the US | 11 |
| 6 Bible Story | 27 |
| 7 Newspapers | 0 |
| 8 Communicating | 2 |
| 9 American Sampler | 2 |

52

| Which materials were second best? | R1 |
|---|---|
| 1 Western Europe | 25 |
| 2 Colonial Days | 7 |
| 3 Travel Expressions | 16 |
| 4 Holidays in the US | 30 |
| 5 Kenji Goes to the US | 11 |
| 6 Bible Story | 7 |
| 7 Newspapers | 2 |
| 8 Communicating | 2 |
| 9 American Sampler | 0 |

53

| Which materials were worst? | R1 |
|---|---|
| 1 Western Europe | 7 |
| 2 Colonial Days | 14 |
| 3 Travel Expressions | 9 |
| 4 Holidays in the US | 5 |
| 5 Kenji Goes to the US | 11 |
| 6 Bible Story | 5 |
| 7 Newspapers | 23 |
| 8 Communicating | 2 |
| 9 American Sampler | 25 |

54

| Which materials were second worst? | R1 |
|---|---|
| 1 Western Europe | 7 |
| 2 Colonial Days | 25 |
| 3 Travel Expressions | 7 |
| 4 Holidays in the US | 5 |
| 5 Kenji Goes to the US | 5 |
| 6 Bible Story | 11 |
| 7 Newspapers | 16 |
| 8 Communicating | 9 |
| 9 American Sampler | 16 |

55

| Which materials were easiest? | R1 |
|---|---|
| 1 Western Europe | 9 |
| 2 Colonial Days | 0 |
| 3 Travel Expressions | 2 |
| 4 Holidays in the US | 5 |
| 5 Kenji Goes to the US | 0 |
| 6 Bible Story | 75 |
| 7 Newspapers | 5 |
| 8 Communicating | 5 |
| 9 American Sampler | 0 |

56

| Which materials were most difficult? | R1 |
|---|---|
| 1 Western Europe | 11 |
| 2 Colonial Days | 11 |
| 3 Travel Expressions | 7 |
| 4 Holidays in the US | 2 |
| 5 Kenji Goes to the US | 11 |
| 6 Bible Story | 5 |
| 7 Newspapers | 18 |
| 8 Communicating | 11 |
| 9 American Sampler | 23 |

57

| How satisfied did you feel at the end of the class? | W1 | R1 |
|---|---|---|
| 1 Over 90% | 29 | 30 |
| 2 Over 80% | 43 | 27 |
| 3 Over 70% | 19 | 30 |
| 4 Over 60% | 5 | 5 |
| 5 Over 50% | 5 | 5 |
| 6 Over 40% | 0 | 2 |
| 7 Over 30% | 0 | 0 |
| 8 Over 20% | 0 | 2 |
| 9 Over 10% | 0 | 0 |

58

| With the content of the materials? | W1 | R1 |
|---|---|---|
| 1 Over 90% | 19 | 21 |
| 2 Over 80% | 29 | 14 |
| 3 Over 70% | 33 | 41 |
| 4 Over 60% | 14 | 11 |
| 5 Over 50% | 0 | 7 |
| 6 Over 40% | 5 | 7 |
| 7 Over 30% | 0 | 0 |
| 8 Over 20% | 0 | 0 |
| 9 Over 10% | 0 | 0 |

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| With the administration of the class? | W1 | R1 |
|---|---|---|
| 1 Over 90% | 24 | 16 |
| 2 Over 80% | 5 | 16 |
| 3 Over 70% | 38 | 41 |
| 4 Over 60% | 0 | 9 |
| 5 Over 50% | 19 | 11 |
| 6 Over 40% | 10 | 5 |
| 7 Over 30% | 5 | 2 |
| 8 Over 20% | 0 | 0 |
| 9 Over 10% | 0 | 0 |

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| With the teacher? | W1 | R1 |
|---|---|---|
| 1 Over 90% | 24 | 27 |
| 2 Over 80% | 29 | 39 |
| 3 Over 70% | 43 | 18 |
| 4 Over 60% | 0 | 7 |
| 5 Over 50% | 5 | 5 |
| 6 Over 40% | 0 | 5 |
| 7 Over 30% | 0 | 0 |
| 8 Over 20% | 0 | 0 |
| 9 Over 10% | 0 | 0 |

## Notes

[1] This study was carried out with the assistance of Doshisha University Research Fund grants 1991-1992 and 1993-1994. The results of the first two questionnaires were published in Kitao (1993).

[2] I have reviewed the articles included in the bibliographies in Edasawa, et al., (1992) and Nozawa, Shimatani, & Yamamoto, (1993).

[3] Doshisha University has six faculties: theology, letters, law, economics, commerce, and engineering. The Faculty of Letters has three departments, English, Humanities (philosophy and ethics, education, psychology, aesthetics and theory of arts, cultural history, and Japanese literature), and sociology (sociology, social welfare, journalism, and industrial relations). The Faculty of Law has the Department of Law and the Department of Political Science. The Faculty of Engineering has five departments: electrical engineering, electronics, mechanical engineering, applied chemistry and chemical engineering.

[4] Typing skills are necessary if students have to type in answers for the exercises, as opposed to just entering one letter or number. However, very few students know how to type, so I teach the basics of typing, including home position for the fingers and which fingers should be used for which keys. I have made typing practice CAI materials which students use to learn the keys from the middle row, then the upper row, then the bottom row. I use common English words for practicing typing, which is more educational than using artificial combinations of letters. In addition, I

made easy grammar exercises which require students to think a little and type long sentences. I use only 100-130 minutes for typing practice in the class. The rest of the typing practice is given as homework for several classes, and I minimize the time spent on typing practice in class because these are not typing classes, and there is disagreement as to whether we should teach typing in a college English class.

[5] Ten of these reports are included in Nozawa, Shimatani, & Yamamoto (1993).

[6] The reading materials are from the following sources:

Kitao, K., & Kitao, S. K. (1989). *Colonial Days*. Tokyo: Gakushobo.

Kitao, K., Broderick, V., Kitao, S. K., Miyamoto, H., & Miyazaki, J. (1989). *Holidays in the United States*. Tokyo: Eichosha.

Kitao, S. K., & Kitao, K. (1991). Kenji goes to the United States. In *American portrait* (pp. 34-61). Tokyo: Asahi Press.

Gross, A., Kitao, S. K., & Kitao, K. (1993). *Listening to Bible stories*. Tokyo: Macmillan Language-House.

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# 26. Organizing a CAI Contest[1]

Kenji Kitao

## Abstract

Since 1992, teachers of foreign language CAI (computer-assisted instruction) at the Tanabe Campus of Doshisha University have hosted a CAI contest for freshmen and sophomores. The purpose of the contest is to make all students aware of foreign language CAI classes, to encourage them to enroll in such classes, and to encourage students of foreign language CAI to study hard. The contest is not difficult to organize or to administer, and it is not expensive to carry out if there are computers and software available. This paper explains how the contest was organized, what we did and what the results were. It also includes some suggestions for teachers interested in hosting such a contest.

## Introduction

Doshisha University began offering English CAI courses in the second semester of the 1988 academic year, a German CAI class in the second semester of the 1991 academic year, and a Chinese CAI class in the 1994 academic year. By the second semester of the 1994 academic year, there were nine teachers (including one part-time teacher) teaching 17 foreign language courses using computers, and slightly fewer than 500 students studying English, German, and Chinese. Most classes are drill or tutorial oriented, and they cover grammar, vocabulary, reading, and include exercises for standardized tests such as TOEIC or TOEFL. Some classes teach reading English newspapers using computer databases and writing business letters using a word processing program. Our experiences were described in detail in Kitao (1992a, 1992b, 1993a, 1993b, 1993c, 1993d) and Kitao, Ishihara, and Yamauchi (1992).

In order to develop good programs and teaching materials, to train new teachers, to learn more about CAI, and to exchange ideas for better CAI classes, several Doshisha University teachers formed a CAI study group. We obtained a Doshisha University Computer Research Fund grant in 1991 and 1992[2], and visited computer business shows, other universities, and conferences. We also bought books and software on foreign language CAI and invited speakers with that fund. We had a monthly study meeting and an annual orientation program, which was extended to a CAI conferences[3].

This group of foreign language teachers made a plan to host a CAI contest based on Shimatani's (1993) experiences[4]. The main difference between the plan we developed and the one Shimatani described was that we held a two-hour contest with all participants at the same time rather than allowing individual participation during the school festival, because the administration is easier, and it looked more formal and academic. It was approved and funded by the *Tanabe Jigyo Iinkai* [Tanabe Event Committee][5]. The first contest was held on Saturday October 24, 1992, and the second, in fall, 1993. The third one was held in the fall, 1994 by the Institute for Language and Culture, and this contest has become the annual event held on Doshisha University's Tanabe Campus.

This contest is easy to organize and administer if computers and software are available. It is a good way to encourage students to study foreign languages and to get students interested in CAI. I will explain what we did and how we did it in order to help readers start CAI contests of their own.

## The First Contest

### Planning

In order to get our plan approved by the Tanabe Event Committee, we wrote a brief proposal[6]. The budget was less than ¥50,000, including prizes and lunches for the committee. This type of event was completely new, and we had to spend a lot of time explaining it to various people. The Tanabe Event Committee raised two points. One was whether the event was for all students, not for only CAI students, and the other was that giving prizes was not educational, and no other events were doing it. The response for the first point was that there were students who use computers and word processors, and more and more students will use them. As long as the contest was open to all students, this could be one of the sponsored events. The second answer was that giving certificates and small prizes was acceptable in education, since this was a contest.

We obtained informal approval at the end of June. Then the administrative committee met and discussed the final plan for the contest. The first contest was administered by three teachers and responsibility for the contest would be rotated among the members, and it would be held twice a year. It was planned that the first contest would include only typing, and the contests would gradually be expanded to include other areas, such as grammar, vocabulary and reading. However, there were strong opposition to having only typing, because it was not considered academic enough for college students. We agreed to have some basic questions on grammar and vocabulary as well as typing. We appointed a chair to head the contest administrative committee and two more members, one English teacher and one German teacher. All the questions for the contest were made by four teachers. From several hundred questions on vocabulary and grammar, the head of the contest administrative committee made the final files of questions.

At the end of September, we obtained the official approval from the Tanabe Event Committee, and we made an announcement of the contest. We also announced that forty students would be accepted on a first come, first served basis. We posted the announcement on bulletin boards and distributed it through English teachers. There were some students who were interested, but many of them could not type. We extended the application deadline and had 30 applicants.

Setting up grading programs in a new account for the contest was a problem. Computer staff members insisted that they were not responsible for it, though they could technically do it. We faculty members insisted that we were not responsible for setting up facilities, equipment or any other preparations except the content of academic matters. In addition, faculty members were not familiar with setting up computer software. Therefore staff members from academic affairs did it under the instruction and supervision of the computer staff, and teachers checked whether the account worked properly.

It was time-consuming work just to check whether programs would work properly, because using all 80 terminals, we had to do some exercises and then run grading programs. For some reason, the grading programs did not work properly, so we opened two accounts, one for 30 terminals and the other 50, and ran programs for both accounts.

The head of the committee made three files of typing exercises (300 questions) and 7 files of grammar and vocabulary exercises (220 questions). He chose questions from the question bank which four teachers made, but he did not have much time to adjust the difficulty level of questions.

We had one first prize (¥5,000 dictionary), two second prizes (¥3,000 dictionaries), and three third prizes (¥2,000 dictionaries) and four other prizes (¥1,000 worth of floppy disks). We also made an English certificate for each prize.

### Administering the Contest

We held the first CAI contest on a Saturday, with registration from 9:00, the opening ceremony at 9:10, the contest from 9:30-11:00, and the closing ceremony at noon. Since it was raining, five participants were absent and some others were late. We started the opening ceremony late. The dean of academic affairs could not attend, and one staff member was the moderator, the head of the committee greeted the participants, and one English teacher explained how to use the computer and how to compete in the contest.

We had planned to start with typing questions, then move on to vocabulary and grammar. However, we had a problem at the beginning. The head of the committee had made the typing questions with old typing software on an NEC computer at home, and the questions did not work with the new software on the Hitachi computers at school. We let students work on vocabulary and grammar, and I converted the typing questions to the new software.

This accident was fortuitous, however, because all the students finished the vocabulary and grammar questions, but some non-CAI students gave up on the typing questions in the middle.

The head of the committee and a German teacher graded the files as the students finished them. Two staff members rapidly made charts of the grades. The charts of all grades were made by 11:20.

The vocabulary and grammar questions were weighted 70%, and the typing questions 30%. The first, second and third prizes were decided based on total scores. The other four prizes were awarded for the individual categories as well as the following one on a total score.

In the closing ceremony, the head of the committee made comments on the results as a whole. Then a staff member announced the names of the winners, and the head of the committee read a certificate and gave it with the prize to each winner. The first prize winner was a female freshman who was not enrolled in a CAI class.

After the contest, we posted the names of the winners on bulletin boards on campus. Since we had to put the winners' names on the certificates, we collected them and asked the winners to come to pick them up. However, some of them were never picked up.

## Evaluation

Since this was the first contest, we had an evaluation meeting with a staff member and some teachers. The results were distributed to all CAI teachers and CAI study group members as well as some administrative teachers.

Some of our conclusions about problems with the contest were as follows:

1. Partly because this was the first contest, it took too much time (almost 9 months) to make the plan and carry it out. It is possible to carry out a contest for up to 80 students with two staff members and three faculty members.
2. Only 25 students attended the contest. This may have been because it was held on rainy Saturday on the campus, which is in an inconvenient location for many students. Also, the publicity was probably not sufficient. We should have put announcements near the CAI classrooms, contacted the ESS or other clubs related to English, and persuaded more teachers to make the announcement in class. We had very few non-CAI students.
3. The first-come first-served registration might not be good. If there are more interested students than we can accommodate, we should hold a drawing.
4. We originally planned to accept participants for only one week, up until a week before the contest. If there is room, we should accept participants until the day before the contest.
5. Since the academic affairs office is some distance from the CAI classrooms, it might have been better to have the applications accepted at the computer office, which is very close to the CAI classrooms.

6. Five out of the thirty students who signed up were absent. One solution might be to charge students to enroll and give prizes to everyone.
7. Holding the contest on a Saturday, when students do not normally have classes does not seem to be a good idea. It might be better to hold the contest on a weekday.
8. We need to test all software on the Hitachi computers which we use for the contest. Different people make materials with different levels of difficulty. It is necessary to check the balance of materials in advance. Since it takes much time and energy to make materials, we need to consider some payment for people to make those materials.
9. We need more assistance from computer staff members. They opened the accounts for the contest and this was not enough.
10. Students were issued numbers at reception and assigned seats based on their numbers. This was helpful.
11. The opening ceremony took about 20 minutes, which was about the right length.
12. The number of questions was appropriate. Twenty-three out of 25 students finished all questions. The students got 25-55% right on vocabulary and grammar questions, indicating that the grammar and vocabulary questions were too difficult. The average time spent was between three and fifteen minutes, and there was a lot of variation on the time required per file. We should have arranged the questions according to difficulty and time required. Typing files were too long, and they were too difficult for non-CAI students. The second one in particular took much time. We used new materials for the contest so we did not know the difficulty level or how long they would take. However, if we use the old questions, it may be difficult to make the contest fair for every participant, since some of the CAI students might have encountered those questions before.

13. One hour was about the right amount of time for deciding the winners. However, one teacher was busy running grading programs and was not involved in decision making. The procedure and criteria should be clearly decided before the actual decision making. It should be announced before the contest, which would allow students an opportunity to plan strategies to help them win.
14. It was useful to have a closing ceremony. The comments that were given were useful for educational purposes, and it allowed the winners to be recognized and praised.
15. Some non-CAI students had trouble with using a computer. We should make a basic manual for those students or have some people to help them when they have a problem.

Table 1: Results of the First Contest

| Vocabulary & Grammar | File | N | TIME | NQ | 1ST | 2ND | 1ST | 2ND |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| VEWQ | Q01 | 25 | 8:24 | 50 | 21.2 | 33.1 | 42.4 | 66.2 |
| VEWQ | Q02 | 25 | 6:54 | 20 | 6.2 | 7.4 | 28.3 | 33.2 |
| VEWQ | Q03 | 25 | 15:08 | 50 | 25.9 | 36.8 | 51.8 | 73.5 |
| VEWQ | Q04 | 25 | 14:19 | 50 | 27.6 | 38.6 | 55.2 | 77.2 |
| VEWQ | Q05 | 25 | 6:58 | 30 | 11.7 | 19.3 | 39.1 | 64.3 |
| VEWQ | Q06 | 24 | 3:16 | 10 | 2.5 | 3.3 | 25.4 | 32.5 |
| VEWQ | Q07 | 23 | 2:59 | 10 | 5.1 | 5.7 | 50.9 | 56.5 |
| typing | | | | | | | | |
| TYPQ | Q01 | 21 | 3:55 | 100 | 96.8 | 99.9 | 96.8 | 99.9 |
| TYPQ | Q02 | 16 | 15:13 | 100 | 93.2 | 99.0 | 93.2 | 99.0 |
| TYPQ | Q03 | 2 | 4:37 | 100 | 97.0 | 99.0 | 97.0 | 99.0 |

Some suggestions were made for the future contests:

1. We could give many questions in advance, allowing students to study before the contest. This would better enhance their learning of English.
2. Typing answers to questions is too difficult for the non-CAI stu-

dents. We could make an elementary division with only multiple-choice questions and an intermediate division with questions which require some typing and which also includes typing questions.

3. All the questions should be tested by more than one teacher on the computers to be used for the contest. There are almost always some problems in CAI materials.
4. It is not easy for teachers to test 80 terminals. We could keep the same account for the contest every year, and then we do not need to test the grading programs. In CAI classes, students could use all those terminals for the exercises we use in class, and that would act as a check on the terminals.
5. The questions we used were too difficult. It would be better if students could get at least 70% right, or they will lose interest. One possibility is to give hints if the students get the wrong answer the first time and allow them to try a second time. If they still do not get the right answer, they could be given the correct answer.
6. In this contest, we had only vocabulary, grammar and typing. We need to consider what areas to cover. It might also be a good idea to have courses such as vocabulary, grammar, reading, writing, culture, and typing.
7. It is not easy to make good questions, and it takes much time and energy to do so. Thus, we should hire people to make those questions or ask outside professionals to make them.
8. The English certificates were a good idea, but it might be better to have prizes such as trophies or plaques. We should make clear what prizes we are offering and how we select students for each prize, so that students can make strategies.

## The Second Contest

**Planning**

The head of the CAI administrative committee and staff members of academic affairs made the plan for the second contest and called the meeting for the CAI contest on September 27, only three weeks before the contest was scheduled. Plans were made in detail. The contest was scheduled for the third period class on Tuesday, October 19, 1993. This contest was held on a weekday, since the previous contest had been held on a Saturday, and it was difficult to recruit participants. However, since the head of the CAI administrative committee had not been involved in the previous contest and was not familiar with the results of the evaluation, there was conflict. We formed a CAI contest administrative committee and appointed a chair. The chair called a meeting and organized plans, but there was little time, and the committee was not able to change much, so some of the same problems of the previous year were repeated. We were not able to eliminate typing, which hinders students' participation, from the contest.

There were four divisions: grammar, vocabulary, reading, and typing. The first two were all multiple-choice questions. The chair made all the questions used in the contest, based on materials made by another teacher which had not been used in class. This was his first experience making questions, and it was good training for him to make the files. He was very dedicated, and he spent several days making all the arrangements himself. He chose to give book bonds for prizes, and he created a new prize for the second student from the bottom, to encourage that student to study harder. He offered prizes for the best overall score and for each division. Announcements were posted on bulletin boards and published in school publications, and foreign language teachers made announcements in their classes. We had to extend the time for accepting applicants this year, too. Thirty-five students participated in the contest (8 freshmen and 27 sophomores). There were many freshmen and non-CAI students. There were 20 engineering major students who were members of a computer programming club. There was much more interest in our CAI contest by ordinary students this year.

On October 19, all of the CAI teachers except the head of the CAI administrative committee and two staff members from academic affairs got together for lunch, and we did the final checks. We made it clear who would participate in the CAI contest during third period and in grading during the fourth period. We checked the prizes, changed the order of the questions, and moved typing to the last.

## Administering the Contest

We started the opening ceremony during the lunch period and gave an orientation on how to use a computer and get questions. One teacher showed each step, which was projected on the screen. That was very easy to understand.

All of the students finished the grammar, vocabulary, and reading sections (except two who skipped the file by mistake), but 13 students could not finish the typing section. The averages were 57% correct in grammar, 53% in vocabulary, and 49% in reading. The most difficult individual file, a reading file, averaged 41% correct. The difficulty level was much improved but it was still too difficult. Results of the typing files were low. The CAI students scored more than 95%, but the non-CAI students did not have any experience with typing, and they did much worse.

In deciding the prizes, the scores counted for 70% and time counted 30%. We chose the top three overall and the best in each division. There were no problems with either the contest and or the grading, and we were able to finish both within the time we planned.

Table 2: Results of the Second Contest

| FILE | N | TIME | NQ | 1ST | 2ND | 1ST | 2ND |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| grammar | | | | | | | |
| FECO Q03 | 35 | 19:20 | 45 | 22.3 | 34.7 | 49.5 | 77.2 |
| FECO Q04 | 35 | 14:33 | 42 | 27.4 | 36.2 | 65.2 | 86.2 |
| | | 33:53 | 87 | | | 57.13 | |
| vocabulary | | | | | | | |
| FECO Q05 | 35 | 10:29 | 35 | 19.7 | 28.1 | 56.2 | 80.2 |
| FECO Q06 | 33 | 9:24 | 40 | 20.3 | 29.4 | 50.7 | 73.5 |
| | | 19:53 | 75 | | | 53.33 | |
| reading | | | | | | | |
| VEW8 Q07 | 35 | 8:13 | 17 | 9.6 | 14.7 | 56.5 | 86.6 |
| VEW8 Q08 | 35 | 6:53 | 15 | 6.1 | 12.6 | 41.0 | 83.8 |
| | | 15:06 | 32 | | | 49.06 | |
| typing | | | | | | | |
| TYP8 Q01 | 35 | 10:26 | 54 | 49.4 | 53.3 | 91.5 | 98.8 |
| TYP8 Q02 | 22 | 8:40 | 36 | 33.5 | 35.5 | 93.1 | 98.7 |
| | | 19:06 | 90 | | | 92.11 | |

Note: N = number of students
Time = average time required
NQ = number of questions
1st = first try
2nd = 2nd try

The closing ceremony was also good. The comments were made on the results, and certificates and prizes were given to all the winners by the oldest professor. Students, particularly the freshman female student who won the first prize, looked very, very happy when they received their prizes[7]. The second prize winner was the female sophomore who won the first prize in the previous year. Both of them were unfortunately non-CAI students. On the other hand, among the 20 CAI students, one won the prize in typing and two won the second- from-the-bottom prize in two divisions. Just having experience with computers did not help much in this contest, except in the typing division. The names of the winners of prizes were posted on the bulletin boards.

**Evaluation**

The second contest went much better than the first one. However, problems with the second one included the fact that the head of the committee did most of the work, and some of the teachers on the committee did not work even on the day of the contest. We also needed a greater variety of divisions, such as, for example, English-speaking cultures. In order to make a variety of good questions, we need more people making materials. Since this is time consuming, the materials developers should be paid.

There was also a suggestion that teachers who were not teaching CAI should be involved in this contest, so they could learn what CAI is like. One of the reasons CAI has not expanded is that not many teachers knew what it is, and many of us agreed to include them in future contests.

## The Third Contest

The third contest was held by the Institute for Language and Culture on November 16, 1994. There were many problems, and we needed to overcome them. The preparations started late. The Event Committee spent a lot of time deciding how to administer the CAI contest. One advantage of the third contest, however, was that one teacher who did not teach CAI was included on the committee.

The head of the committee again did the most work. The announcements were only posted on bulletin boards, and the publicity was poor and did not mention anything about prizes. Forty-two students participated, and about thirty of them were recruited by one teacher from his classes.

The head of the committee spent a great deal of time and effort choosing the prizes, but he did not spend much time making the final files of questions. He chose very few questions (40 each of grammar, reading, and vocabulary, about half as many as the previous years). With so few questions, it is difficult to see differences in the English ability of the students. In addition, the head of the committee did not test the final files with the computer for the contest. Thus the typing programs did not work properly, and other files had many minor errors in the questions. He did not emphasize time, and students spent too much time doing those questions. He did not explain how the winners would be chosen. He did not test in advance whether he could grade the results, and he was not able to get grades for the vocabulary questions. Though there were grammar, vocabulary, reading, and typing divisions, some of the reading questions were on dialogues rather than reading passages. His explanations of how to use computers and obtaining materials were not clear, and many students had problems in working on the questions.

The closing ceremony was also poor, because the comments did not include any information except how the winners were chosen. The certificates were not read, and only prizes were given. The ceremony was not effective.

## Suggestions for Administering CAI Contests

The most important idea behind the contest is to stimulate students to learn English, particularly with computers. Thus, we have to have an interesting contest that many students want to participate in. We have to have good publicity and use various means to get students interested.

We should have a variety of divisions, including American history, English-speaking cultures, business English, and reading newspapers, in addition to the four skills. We should continue to include some exercises requiring typing skills, which many students do not have.

There are a number of other possibilities for the various divisions in the contest which would stimulate students' interest and encourage them to develop their skills in English. For example, it is possible to have students use word processors to write an essay. We could announce a few topics, and allow students to practice in advance. At the contest, we could give the students one topic and let them write an essay within a certain period of time.

Another possibility would be to give students a large amount of reading material in advance, and one division of the contest could involve answering questions over that reading material.

Another possibility is to give students a reading assignment first, and have students write their responses to it using a word processor. This requires not only writing but also reading.

Since we have many graded readers in our library, students could read those books and write up a book report on each book. They could compete to read the most books and write the best book reports. Since we have an access to a computer database, students can read English newspapers. They could read articles on topics of their choice and write up reports using words from a vocabulary list of unknown words.

In addition to having students compete as individuals, we could make groups of three or four students who have to cooperate on an assigned task. We could, for example, assign each group to make a newspaper, requiring the students to write articles and edit and organize them.

We could also have competitions among classes. We can give tasks using computers for databases, dictionaries, or encyclopedias. If a contest could create situations in which many students work together to learn English, that would be beneficial.

Since many teachers have never tried CAI, it is also important that the contest get as many faculty members as possible involved and get them interested in using computers as a part of their instruction.

Computers are very powerful, and they can be used to do variety of activities for instruction. If your school already has them, it is not very expensive to organize a contest like ours, and we believe that it is very useful for education. However, it does take time and energy, and it is necessary to make good plans.

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## Notes

This paper is rewritten from "CAI Contest" written in Japanese and published as Kitao (1994a) Kitao, (1994b) and Kitao (1995).

[1] This study was partially supported by Doshisha University Research Fund grants 1991-1992 and 1993-1994.

[2] Ten foreign language teachers formed a group and received a Doshisha University Computer Research Fund grant in 1991 and 1992. Some foreign language teachers received the same grant in 1992 and 1993, Doshisha University Research Fund in 1990, in 1991-1992, 1992-1993, and 1993-1994. The total amount was about 13 million yen. Parts of those research projects were published as Edasawa, et al. (1992) and Nozawa, et al. (1993).

[3] The largest conference was the fourth CAI Conference held in February, 1993, at the Tanabe Campus of Doshisha University, in which 260 people participated. Many presentations were published in Nozawa, et al. (1993).

[4] We do not have a CAI study group, but we have a CAI administrative committee made up of all full-time CAI teachers. This committee administers CAI orientations, holds meetings to exchange new ideas or information, and carries out the administration of CAI contests.

[5] This committee was organized to make plans and administer them to enhance education for all freshmen and sophomores at the Tanabe Campus. The head of the committee was the Dean of Academic Affairs, and the Office of Academic Affairs on Tanabe Campus carried out plans. The annual budget was eight million yen.

[6] The original proposal included plans to present a President's trophy for the first prize winner for the first year and later a Chancellor's trophy for the winner of a contest open to all Doshisha college-level students, including Doshisha Women's College students, and later even opening the contest to local high school students or even holding a nationwide event for college students.

[7] She was far above the other students in both scores and time. She obtained 98% in grammar, 90% in vocabulary, 78% in reading, and 98% in typing.

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**KENJI KITAO** received his MA and PhD in TESL at the University of Kansas. He is a professor at Doshisha University and teaches English there. He has taught Japanese to foreign students at Osaka University of Foreign Studies and Doshisha University. He is a member of various professional organizations such as TESOL, SIETAR, IATEFL, JALT, JACET, CAJ, ELEC, and JELES. He has published many papers and has made presentations at conferences both in Japan and abroad. He is a co-author of more than forty books, including *An American Sampler, American Patterns, American Vistas, American Holidays, American Mosaic, American Reflections, Reading English Newspapers, Writing English Paragraphs, Enjoying America, American Potluck, American Panorama, American Portrait, Communicating in the U.S.: Situations in English*, government-authorized English textbooks *English Now I* and *English Now II*, and other textbooks. He was JALT Program Chairperson in 1980 and JALT Vice-President from 1981 to 1984. He was the editor-in-chief of TEFL IN JAPAN — JALT *Tenth Anniversary Collected Papers* (1985) and *Culture and Communication* (1995). From 1985 to 1987, he took a sabbatical at Michigan State University, where he studied, did research, and taught in the area of communication. From July 1995, he will have a sabbatical at Lancaster University in England.

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